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ABSTRACT

This monograph suggests curricular revisions in teacher education programs which will prepare teachers to work more effectively with handicapped students and their nonhandicapped peers. Articles on the following topics are presented: 1) the challenge of Public Law 94-142 to teacher education; 2) a liberal arts response to the concept of a common body of practice; 3) accepting the challenge of change in teacher education; 4) the challenge of Public Law 94-142 to the structure of schooling; 5) mainstreaming and teacher education; 6) toward an enlargement of general principles in teacher education; 7) possible effects of Public Law 94-142 on the future of teacher education; and, 8) expanding the values of Public Law 94-142 to nonhandicapped children. (JD)

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A COMMON BODY OF PRACTICE FOR TEACHERS:

THE CHALLENGE OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142 TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Produced by

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U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
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and

7 Critique Papers

by

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PREFACE

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is pleased to publish this monograph as evidence of the cooperative efforts between its BEH-funded project on personnel preparation and education of the handicapped and the National Support Systems Project. But more importantly, the dissemination of this publication gives credence to the Association's commitment to the improvement of personnel preparation programs for education of the handicapped as set forth in its official position statement, "Beyond the Mandate: The Professional Imperative."

Teacher educators across the country are seeking assistance to help give direction to program revisions which are responsive to P.L. 94-142. This monograph sets forth ten competency clusters that provide the basis for curricular revisions of educational personnel preparation programs which will prepare school personnel to work more effectively not only with handicapped students, but all students.

AACTE believes that this publication is a significant addition to educational literature, and hopes that readers will find it a useful resource for the planning and implementation of program improvements. The inclusion of seven critique papers enhances its value for readers.

The Association expresses appreciation to the authors of the manuscript and acknowledges the contributions of Louisa Tarullo, Diane Merchant, and Ruth Barker in seeing it through to publication.

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FOREWORD

Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, has profound implications for all educators. Teachers are now required to deliver high quality education to all students, including those who are handicapped. Teacher educators have very important obligations to help teachers acquire the capabilities which they must have to deliver such education.

In the interests of assisting institutions of higher education in extending and improving their preservice preparation for "regular" class teachers, taking into account Public Law 94-142, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, launched a set of Deans' Grant Projects in 1975. At the time of this writing the Deans' Grant program is in its fifth year.

A major aspect of the Deans' Grant Projects has been to identify the competencies or capabilities teachers must have if they are to perform in accordance with the high principles and expectations of the new policies. Through the work of the National Support Systems Project at the University of Minnesota, an attempt has been made to collate these ideas on the required teacher competencies; this publication reflects the current status of that effort.

It is gratifying to note that this publication is to be presented collaboratively by the National Support Systems Project and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. This document reflects the growing commitment by all teacher educators to the implementation of Public Law 94-142 and the broadening realization that the provision of high quality services to children who are handicapped is closely intertwined with improved opportunities for all minority children and, indeed, requires fundamental improvements in teacher education for all children.

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A COMMON BODY OF PRACTICE FOR TEACHERS: THE CHALLENGE OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142 TO TEACHER EDUCATION *

Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, has created a new set of conditions under which teachers must function and which must be addressed by teacher education. Attempts to implement the law have already revealed in practice what was evident in advance: The level of professional preparation simply is not adequate for the new conditions. The challenge they present could be the opportunity long sought by many educators to bring the teaching profession to maturity and into its own. Never before has there been such a pervasive force buttressing the arguments for quality teacher education. The opportunity should not be lost; nor should the benefits of Public Law 94-142 be lost for want of adequately prepared educators.

This paper has evolved, in the main, out of the experiences of the Deans' Grant Projects, which are supported by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, for the purpose of redesigning teacher education to accord with the principles of Public Law 94-142. Only deans of education or other administrators who carry broad responsibilities for preservice teacher preparation programs have been eligible for these grants. The central focus has been the renewal of preparation programs for so-called "regular" teachers. While this paper addresses the

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* Five persons who have been deeply involved in recent efforts for changes in teacher education in relation to Public Law 94-142 met to draft a set of statements from which the present paper has been abstracted. They are Jack W. Birch, Dawn Grohs, Robert Howsam, Catherine Morsink, and Maynard Reynolds. All of these individuals have been associated with the Deans' Grant Projects which are supported by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped; several have also been involved in related projects supported by Teachers Corps and the Bureau for Educational Personnel Development. The first and second drafts were criticized by "regional liaisons" associated with the National Support Systems Project, including Percy Bates, Dean Corrigan, Robert Gilberts, Harold Mitzel, Bert Sharp, and Bob Woods. A third draft version of the paper was submitted for formal criticism to leaders in teacher education and leaders of parent organizations concerned with children who are handicapped. The third draft was also discussed broadly by representatives of about 80 Deans' Grant Projects in a national meeting held in May 1979. The present version represents an attempt to take account of all earlier criticisms and discussion.

concerns of all teachers, its special focus is on the large task of upgrading the preparation for "regular" teachers.

The three parts of the paper are as follows:

1. An introductory statement on Public Law 94-142, its historical significance, and its challenge to teacher education.

2. A substantive discussion of and recommendations for competency clusters or domains which are derived from Public Law 94-142 and which define a common core of requirements -- a "professional culture" for all teachers.

3. An outline of a model for teacher education and a detailing of the "competency clusters" in a form which can be used to evaluate and plan efforts to improve teacher education.

While this paper outlines knowledge, skills, and commitments which are essential to teachers, it does not discuss creative-intuitive processes which are also essential to teaching. This omission is not intended to suggest that teaching is a totally calculated scientific process; the subject matter is simply limited in scope to the necessary professional capabilities, which combined with creative-intuitive processes, may produce excellence -- even artistry -- in teaching.

As work goes forward in preparing personnel to meet the conditions imposed by Public Law 94-142, it will be necessary to take account of other significant current forces for change in teacher preparation. For example, it will be particularly important to coordinate the work proceeding in behalf of handicapped students with the efforts in behalf of racial minorities and ethnic groups. In the past organization of the schools, the segregation of children on the basis of race and handicap was intertwined; excessive numbers of children from minority group families were labeled as handicapped and placed in isolated special classes and schools. Solutions of such problems will require broad and coordinated efforts for change. Although this paper deals mainly with handicapped and gifted students, it is intended to be used as one part of a broader effort for the reform and improvement of teacher preparation.

The Impact on Teacher Education of Public Law 94-142

During the decade of the 1970s, the Congress of the United States enacted two pieces of legislation that, together, open wide to handicapped individuals the opportunity to participate more fully in the mainstream of American education. They are Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (PL 93-516) and Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. Section 504 authorizes three benefits for handicapped people: vocational training in mainstream settings, the promotion and expansion of employment opportunities, and the removal of all architectural and transportation barriers. Public Law 94-142 mandates equal educational opportunity for all handicapped children; free and appropriate education; placement in regular public school settings with their non-handicapped peers to the extent that it is feasible; cooperatively written individualized educational plans; provision of special education and related services as needed; and observance of handicapped children's and their parents' due process rights.

Public Law 94-142 represents one of the most significant commitments ever made in American public education. From the Common Schools Act of 1641, which provided basic schooling for all children who sought it, society has moved to guarantee access to appropriate, individualized education to each handicapped child, regardless of the extent of his or her handicap. Many children affected by the law are gifted and talented. Moreover, several states already have acted to bring all their gifted and talented students under legal provisions equivalent to those of Public Law 94-142. It takes little imagination to project the extension of the new policies and procedures to all children; it can only be a matter of time.

Although legislation and court orders are powerful forces for change in our society, they do not by themselves effect change. Institutions are altered by community support, resources, and people, and the effectiveness of the efforts to change can be no greater than the weakest component. Public Law 94-142 is itself prima facie evidence of community support; its funding provisions are designed to provide a substantial part of the necessary resources. However, the failure of Congress to fully fund programs under Public Law 94-142 indicates less than complete public support.

Like other social institutions, education provides a system for the delivery of services to members of society and provides the personnel to perform the services. It seems reasonable to assume that given adequate resources, the delivery system can be altered to accord with the intent and provisions of Public Law 94-142. Less certain by far is the present capacity of the personnel to meet the demands of a new delivery system.

Teachers, in general, have not had the kind and level of preparation necessary for dealing with the full range of student differences within regular school settings. It has been in response to this fact, in part at least, that special schools and classes for handicapped children have proliferated over the years. In recent years, dramatic changes have occurred in the school situations in which teachers function. For the most part, the changes have made teaching more challenging and difficult. With few exceptions, however, the changes have not been reflected in teacher preparation; it has remained fundamentally unchanged both in form and in substance.

It can be stated with confidence that the goals of Public Law 94-142 will be realized only if the qualify of teacher preparation and professional service in the schools can be improved. High priority must be given to substantial if not massive upgrading and retooling of the programs that prepare teachers for entry to the profession and facilitate their continuing professional development through a lifetime of service.

Teacher preparation in America has never been optimal; it always has been minimal. The level of professional expertise developed in preparation programs is far below that needed for effectiveness, even in the most favorable teaching situations. It is disastrously inadequate for meeting the challenges of a delivery system in which all children, exceptional or otherwise, share school learning environments with the non-handicapped school population.

To draw firm distinctions between handicap and non-handicap is, of course, a mistake. Conditions that impede effective learning are widespread throughout the entire school environment. "Handicap," in the official sense, is but a more obvious condition that tests the adequacy of the instructional system. It reveals the weaknesses that are obscured when the students who require the highest level of professional competence are selectively removed. All students require professional teachers: those who have the capacity to so manage the processes of individualized learning that the development of educationally limiting conditions is prevented, extant problems are eliminated or minimized where possible, and learning is optimized. Teachers, in turn, must have the materials, procedures, knowledge, and support services to accomplish that.

The mandate to mainstream handicapped children has thrust upon schools and teachers new demands for which neither has been adequately prepared. Both short- and long-term programs are needed which are designed to develop the capacity of both systems and teachers to deliver on the intent and promises of Public Law 94-142. Adequate solutions call for a complete redevelopment of teacher preparation.[1]

A Common Body of Practice Derived from Public Law 94-142

Established professions are characterized by bodies of knowledge and practice which are held in common by members. When individuals carry the designations of physician, lawyer, or minister, the public generally knows what services each can be expected to provide competently. Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash (1976) use the term "professional culture"[2] to designate the knowledge, skills, behaviors, attitudes, and values that make up the collective basis for practice and decision making by members of a profession. They lament the absence of such a culture among teachers and deplore the reality that teachers have yet to establish for themselves a professional body of knowledge or set of professional behaviors that is common to all.

> . . . . the teaching profession is characterized by lack of a common body of knowledge and repertoire of behaviors and skills needed in the practice of the profession . . . . teachers do not possess a common body of professionally validated knowledge and skills which is transmitted in the processes of professional socialization, held in common with other teachers thereafter, and constantly increased through the career span of the teacher. (pp. 10-11)

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[1] In the balance of this paper, references to "teachers" signify all teachers: those in kindergartens and elementary, secondary, and vocational-technical schools; special education teachers; and teachers of music, art, physical education, and chemistry -- literally, all teachers. Other school employees, such as school social workers, administrators, supervisors, counselors, psychologists, and speech-language pathologists are included at times by specific reference.

[2] Professional culture: The totality of transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, knowledge, skills, and all other products of work and thought characteristic of the teaching profession (paraphrased from American Heritage Dictionary).

> In the absence of agreement on the substance of the professional culture needed by the teaching profession, there can be no agreed-upon performance standards either for admission to, or continuance in, the profession. (p. 12)
>
> Since so many aspects of professional realization depend upon the relative absence of a professional culture in teaching practice, it must be seen as the most critical factor in the professional status of teaching. Little progress will be made until educators develop and use a body of recognized professional expertise. Unfortunately, neither teachers in service nor teacher educators [have yet reached] consensus on the development of appropriate technical skills which all teachers should master. (p. 13)
>
> Realistically, . . . teaching . . . is becoming more professional, but it is hollow without an accompanying professional culture. (p. 18)

The development of a professional culture is certainly a matter of central importance if teaching is to be recognized as an established profession.

To date, the nearest educators have come to agreement on a common core for the professional preparation of teachers has been the content of certain foundational subjects: usually, history of education, philosophy of education, and educational psychology. These subjects provide a framework and an understanding of education but they do not prepare anyone to "practice" education. While they are much needed and should be linked closely to studies relating more directly to practice, in themselves they fall far short of supplying anything comparable to the common body of professional knowledge, skills, behaviors, attitudes, and values that characterize an established profession.

Upon this theoretical-historical foundcation, we should construct the body of knowledge, skill, and practice which is essential to the professional culture of teaching and which will prepare students to function as teaching professionals within the context of social mandates. The substance of this curriculum would be derived significantly from the intent of the mandates to assure equality of educational opportunity for all handicapped, disadvantaged, and other minority group children, as provided in Public Law 94-142 and other recent laws and court decisions.

A salient feature of these requirements, which reflects both research findings and the current social philosophy of education, is the individualization of educational programs for children with special needs. Public Law 94-142, for example, provides for an individual educational program (IEP) to be written at least annually for each pupil by a committee of relevant personnel (including the child's parent[s]). This program spells out what is to be taught, by whom, how it is to be taught, and how the success of the program will be judged.

Development and implementation of individually designed educational programs requires that teachers have broad knowledge and refined abilities to assess and treat the full range of children's educational needs. This procedure is too important to allow it to become a superficial routine. Rather, its emphasis on optimal development provides a natural focus for the development of a professional culture, acquired by all teachers and recognized by society.

At present, the individualized educational program or IEP is conceived of as the basic educational management tool for handicapped or gifted[3] children. It is likely that this requirement, as a matter of equal rights, will be extended to all children. The IEP provides the means of adapting general educational goals and methods to individual needs and abilities. It does not imply that each pupil will be taught separately but, rather, that the style and rate of learning and strengths and weaknesses of each pupil will be recognized and respected. The public nature of IEPs -- that is, the requirement that the IEP be planned and written by a team consisting of school personnel, the pupil (when feasible) and the pupil's parent(s) or guardian(s), and that the effectiveness of the IEP be reviewed periodically -- makes teachers accountable for the first time for the application of proper instructional procedures under appropriate conditions.

To achieve real, day-by-day individualization of education for pupils requires that school systems provide various resources which teachers can muster and use effectively. These resources, at the minimum, include a reasonably adequate supply of differentiated instructional materials;

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[3] In several states the IEP procedure is required for gifted as well as handicapped students, even though the Federal law, Public Law 94-142, refers only to those who are handicapped.

appropriate facilities and space in which to employ the materials; access to consultation with and technical support from specialists, adequate preparation time, and, for at least part of the day, the assistance of teachers' aides. School systems are derelict if they do not supply these resources; it would be tantamount to expecting surgeons, for example, to function effectively without operating rooms, nursing assistance, or proper instruments.

If we assume, however, that the essential resources are available, then it is possible to identify the clusters of capabilities which teachers and other specialists need to plan, prepare, and execute productive IEPs. These clusters can be viewed as the essential components of the professional culture: the professional behaviors that the public can expect all teachers to be able to perform at a competent level. It is highly significant that although the discussions from which this paper is derived began around concerns for students with handicaps and Public Law 94-142, the competency clusters which evolved are quite general and have implications for all students.

Clusters of Capabilities

The following ten clusters were extracted from broad discussions and experiences relating to the implementation of training programs for teachers who are engaged in meeting the new requirements of Public Law 94-142. The clusters are not intended to be complete or mutually exclusive. They are not presented in a systematic sequence and they are not offered as competency statements in the sense of "competency-based" instruction; they are both more discursive and less detailed in phrasing than competency statements should be. At this stage, the clusters simply provide a convenient map of the domains of professional competence that appear to be important to every teacher who participates in the design and implementation of individualized instruction.

1. Curriculum (i.e., what is deliberately taught in school)

It is clear that the presence of exceptional youngsters in regular classes increases the breadth and variety of students' learning needs and skills. This greater spread of abilities, in turn, creates a major demand for curriculum that treats subject matter with fewer assumptions about prior learning and previously acquired skills. Teachers have been working hard over most of the past century to make their classes more homogeneous and curricular materials correspondingly homogeneous. IEPs and the increasing presence of handicapped students in classes disrupt such assumptions and trends. If the heart of the movement toward individualized and personalized instruction is the optimal development of each child, heterogeneity is its essence.

All teachers should have a general knowledge of the school curriculum that is offered from kindergarten through high school (K-12). Every teacher should be able to describe the curricular content and objectives which are typical of the nation's elementary and secondary schools, and the rationale for each major curricular element. They should be able to relate the curriculum to what is known about the development of children and youth and to the functions of schools as social institutions. They must be skilled in the preparation of individualized curricular plans for children based upon careful assessments of individual needs. This knowledge and these skills are as necessary for professional educators as knowledge of the bones and muscles of the body is for physicians, regardless of specialization.

It is not necessary for every educator to be a specialist in reading, art, modern language, or some other specific curricular component, any more than every physician must be an expert in bone surgery or in the cellular structure of muscle tissue. However, a sound general knowledge of curriculum is necessary so that responsible planning for pupils can proceed with assurance that no essential considerations are overlooked.

Recommendation:

The preparation of all teachers should include the study of and firsthand experience with curricular principles, guides, and structures from preschool through secondary school levels. All major subjects that are systematically taught in schools by professionals should be included. The means and procedures by which curriculum is developed, adopted, and changed should be understood and there should be practice in designing and modifying curriculum and materials, especially to suit the individual needs of students.

2. Teaching Basic Skills

All teachers should be able to teach the basic skills effectively. These skills fall into three main categories: literacy, life maintenance, and personal development. They also need preparation for co-teaching and other forms of collaborative work with specialists who are called upon to provide intensive help in basic skills for selected students.

Literacy skills are those for which the school has primary responsibility and which are necessary for continued learning as well as for efficient performance in most work situations. They include reading, which all teachers should be able to teach at least from first- to fifth-grade levels (word attack, word recognition, comprehension, and rate), writing (letter formation, sentence structure, and paragraph structure), spelling (rules and exceptions), arithmetic (whole-number computation, simple fractions, time, and measurement applications), study (use of resources, critical thinking, and organizing data), and speaking (sending and receiving accurate verbal messages, expression, and intonation).

It might be argued that only teachers of the elementary grades need to be prepared as teachers of reading; undoubtedly, such teachers should have very strong preparation in reading instruction. However, literally all teachers, including those at secondary and vocational levels, need to understand and be skilled at teaching reading at basic levels. All teachers need to assist their students in developing better reading skills; they need to choose reading materials appropriately, to set goals for reading carefully, and to work with specialists in reading knowledgeably.

Life maintenance skills are those necessary for survival and effective functioning in society. Sometimes referred to as survival or life skills, they include health (personal hygiene and nutrition), safety (danger signs, maneuvering in traffic, and home safety), consumerism (making purchases, making change, and comparative shopping), and law (human rights, appeal process, court system, and personal liability).

Personal development skills are necessary for personal growth. Teachers should be able to exemplify a high sense of identity and personal integration for their students. Since all individuals struggle with values, philosophical positions, moral behavior, and basic life issues, teachers should provide mature models for their students in these domains. They should be prepared to assist students in processes of goal setting, decision making, problem solving and conflict resolution, in both intra- and interpersonal dimensions, as aspects of their own personal development. Similarly teachers should be prepared to help students acquire good habits and skills in recreational activities and in creative approaches to both work and play. Teachers should also be able to relate subject matter to career implications, i.e., the several life careers in which individuals engage as members of society, including: 1) paid employment, 2) homemaking/family membership, 3) avocational pursuits, and 4) involvement in civic affairs.

Recommendations:

The preparation of all teachers should include necessary elements to assure competency in teaching the basic skills (defined to include literacy, life maintenance, and personal development skills) and in collaborative practice with specialists in basic skills instruction. Instruction should be provided in teaching the skill areas as such. In addition, supervised practical experience should be provided in teaching of literacy, life maintenance, and personal development skills.

3. Class Management

All teachers should be able to apply individual and group management skills to insure a high level of positive response from pupils in instructional situations. When classes are skillfully managed, students can maintain attention to school-related learning activities and build positive feelings about themselves, their classmates, and their schools. Teachers need to be highly effective in group-alerting techniques, management of transitions in school activities, responses to daily crises, and management of a variety of learning activities in a single setting at the same time (Borg, undated). For effective learning outcomes, time on task and favorable attitudes need to be maximized. Students should learn to share in the responsibility for effective management; helping them learn in this domain is a primary task for teachers.

All teachers should be able to apply behavioral analysis procedures (sometimes called behavior modification or contingency management procedures) and other specific methodologies to encourage both scholastic achievement and acceptable personal and social conduct, and to instruct parents and teachers' aides in applying those procedures under the teacher's guidance.

Recommendation:

All teachers should be proficient in class management procedures, including applied behavioral analysis, group alerting, guiding transitions, materials arrangement, crisis intervention techniques, and group approaches to creating a positive affective climate.

4. Professional Consultation and Communications

All teachers should be proficient in consultation and other forms of professional communication, as both initiators and receivers, to establish and maintain responsible interactions with colleagues and administrators. Teachers should be able to serve as consultants. Teachers who specialize, for instance, in working with children who have visual impairments should be able to consult with other teachers on the kinds of methods and materials that they should learn to use with visually impaired pupils in their regular classes. At the same time, all teachers should learn to be competent receivers and users of consultation.

Educators should be practiced at collaborating with colleagues who share responsibility for individual students' programs. Regular teachers and speech-language pathologists, for instance, must deliberately complement and reinforce each other's work with pupils. Readiness to function as a member of a team does not come naturally to most professionals; it must be developed through guided experience.

Teachers also need to know how to negotiate objectively and consistently with colleagues, administrators, employers, and other persons when their goals, values, philosophies, or priorities differ. Matters for negotiation may range over working conditions, curricular design, pay and benefits, materials selection, need for inservice training, and other considerations. In all these matters teachers need the ability to keep the atmosphere of the negotiations open, flexible, and free of personal conflict.

Key elements in all these interactions include a firm grounding in consultation and communications processes, the requirements of due process, and a thorough knowledge of acceptable practices regarding confidentiality. Equally essential in the process is resourcefulness in building trust relationships. In all collaborations, teachers should be encouraged to take equal status with all other personnel on the assumption that each participant in collaborative work is a specialist who is sharing expertise in order to create optimal school programs for individual pupils.

Recommendations:

It is essential now that all teachers have opportunities to master the knowledge and practices involved in effective consultation and other forms of professional communication. As part of preservice preparation, every teacher should have instruction and practicum experience leading to assured capability in these areas.

5. Teacher-Parent-Student Relationships

All teachers should learn skills and sensitivity in dealing with parents of their students and especially with parents and siblings of handicapped, disadvantaged, and other exceptional students. Instruction should be provided which enhances respect for the role of the family in the nurturance and education of children. This should be extended to include a history of disenfranchised groups (e.g., handicapped, black, Hispanic, native American, migrant). It should also provide information on the effects of such disadvantages on families, especially influences on family-school contacts and interactions between parents and teachers or other professionals. Teachers should have some training and experience in clinical approaches to distrust, hostility, and anger, and in approaches to build trust and cooperation. They should be prepared to share teaching skills with parents, so that both developmental and corrective program elements for students can be continued whenever that is appropriate in the home situation.

Recommendation:

All teachers should have skills and sensitivity for dealing with parents and siblings of handicapped students; they should have had opportunities to practice skills in this area as part of their practicums in teacher preparation.

6. Student-student Relationships

All teachers should be able to teach pupils how to relate to each other in ways that produce satisfaction and self-improvement. This ability should be based on counseling skills, knowledge and skill in using group activities that encourage cooperative behavior, and strong foundation studies in human development.

Peer and cross-age teaching are specific forms of constructive relationships which can be used with advantages for all participants. Encouraging pupils to teach each other and to be helpful to one another is a complex undertaking. It offers very important learning experiences to the tutors as well as to those who are tutored. For example, a teen-age boy or girl can acquire self-confidence and personal satisfaction through helping second graders learn to use phonic or configuration clues to unlock new or unfamiliar words; similarly, home economics students can instruct immature children in self-help skills. Teachers can and should learn to use heterogeneous groups of pupils in work of cooperative kinds to achieve group goals. When teachers have the prerequisite skill to take solid command of the social structures of their classes through effective teaching, they find that they have a powerful additional tool with which to construct individualized learning situations.

Recommendations:

All teachers should be able to convey to students the attitude that they bear some of the responsibility for their social environment and must be willing to help one another. Also, teachers need to be prepared to manage the social structure of their classes by generating cooperative, mutually helpful behavior among the students. Teachers need specific insights into and skills for developing heterogeneously cooperative grouping procedures and peer and cross-age tutoring. They also should be able to teach students to use some of the basic counseling/guidance skills in relationships with other students.

7. Exceptional Conditions

All teachers should know the preferred procedures for the instruction of students with exceptional conditions, such as limited sight or hearing, emotional problems, limited cognitive abilities, or outstanding talents and gifts, and they should be aware of the literature and body of practice in each area which can be pursued in depth when necessary -- for example, when an exceptional student is enrolled in the class. They also need to be familiar with the functions of various specialists who work in the schools (e.g., psychologists, educational audiologists, school social workers, resource teachers for the visually impaired, etc.) and to be prepared to establish team arrangements for the instruction of exceptional students. While it is not reasonable to expect all teachers to know everything about exceptional conditions, they should have rudimentary knowledge in all areas and know where additional help is available, how to get it, and how to use it.

Recommendations:

All prospective teachers should have preparation in understanding exceptional children, in school procedures for accommodating children's special needs, and in the functions of specialists who serve exceptional children. Moreover, opportunities for direct experience with the children and with specialists should be provided.

8. Referral

When a pupil or parent presents a problem which a teacher feels unable to resolve, it is not a mark of inadequacy for the teacher to refer the questioner to a colleague. In fact, failure to make a referral in such an instance is a violation of professional ethics. Depriving a person of access to someone who can provide help is professional malpractice which may worsen a problem and cause other problems. It is important to establish the attitude that making a referral is not to transfer "ownership" of a problem to a specialist; rather, it is a way of calling on a specialist who may be able to offer further help.

Few teachers are so well and so broadly prepared that they can solve every kind of problem on their own. Teachers need training to give them the skills to detect actual or potential problems, determine whether the solutions to the problems are within their professional competence, and, if not, refer to someone else for assistance. Sometimes the referral will be to a special resource within the school and sometimes, to a broader community agency.

An important aspect of a good referral process is being able to make and report systematic observations of pupils who are experiencing difficulties. All teachers need to be competent in the observation of individual students within their classes.

Recommendations:

Teachers need to learn the procedures for referrals, the responsibilities involved, and the ways to capitalize on referral resources in behalf of better education for individual pupils. They must be skilled in making systematic observations to provide data and undergird judgments for the referral process. There should be opportunities to obtain first-hand experience in how both in-school and community agencies operate.

9. Individualized Teaching

All teachers should be able, while managing and monitoring a group of pupils, to carry out individual assessments, identify individual learning styles, spot special needs, personalize and adapt assignments, and keep records on individual pupil progress toward established objectives.

These skills form the essence of teaching the individual pupil. This does not mean, of course, that all teaching is one-on-one, and it does not mean that the teacher should attend to all pupils at the same time with the same degree of intensity. It does mean that the teacher has mastered the tactics of instruction which result in a reasonably close match of the interests and abilities of each pupil, the content that is being taught, and the methods of instruction being used, so each fits well with the others.

Teachers should be able to understand and interpret theory and research relevant to the individualizing of instruction, be able to discern strengths and weaknesses of children's abilities and be knowledgeable about diverse models for individualized instruction. They should be skillful in developing objectives for each student and be able to assess whether each student is meeting the objectives.

A particularly important aspect of individualizing instruction is competency in using assessment and grading systems that promote honest and useful sharing of information with the individual student and parents. Thus, teachers should be competent in domain- or criterion-referenced assessment and instructing case data for interpretation of the child's total educational situation. In addition, they should be able to conduct valid evaluations of their own instruction.

Recommendations:

All teachers should be competent in the assessment of the individual student's educational needs and in adapting instruction to the individual. Starting from the first week of teacher preparation, and continuing until its completion, trainees should be in the company of experienced teachers who individualize education expertly and specialists who can help in diagnostic and instructional processes.

10. Professional Values

All teachers, in their personal commitments and professional behavior with pupils, parents, and colleagues, should exemplify the same consideration for all individuals and their educational rights as are called for in Public Law 94-142 and in the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973. These include the right of individual students to due process in all school placement decisions, to education in the least restrictive environment, and to carefully individualized education.

Teachers should be skilled in assisting others (parents, colleagues, pupils) in understanding and accepting as positive values the increasing diversity of students who are enrolled in regular school programs. They need to be able to listen to opposing viewpoints without considering them as attacks on their own behaviors or values.

Both practicing teachers and teacher educators should provide skillful and consistent models of professionalism and of commitment to the implementation of the national and state laws relevant to education. If they choose to dissent, which they are free to do as a matter of individual conscience, they should distinguish clearly between their continuing professional obligation to their students and each other under existing law, and their rights as individuals to propose and promote orderly changes in the law.

Recommendations:

Selection and training processes in teacher education should include attention to values which give primary place to individual students, their needs and rights. Such values are required on a moral basis for anyone involved in teaching; but they are undergirded by codes of ethical behavior established by the teaching profession and in law. Teachers in training should be oriented to ethical codes regarding their responsibilities to individual pupils.

School law, and the regulations that relate to it, also should become part of the foundation of preparation for all teachers. The knowledge is necessary for the safeguarding of pupils' rights, self-protection, and intelligent professional behavior.

Assessment and Planning for Revisions in Teacher Preparation

In this third section two major topics are presented: (a) a general model for the conceptualization of teacher preparation and (b) the recapitulation of the ten clusters of capability as a definite model to advance the analysis, evaluation, and planning of teacher preparation programs. No doubt other teacher preparation models, too, can accommodate the concepts presented in the first two parts of this paper. It would be good to see such efforts made.

The Teacher-Preparation Model. Following is the outline of a model for the conceptualization of teacher preparation. It involves two major dimensions: (a) areas of study; and (b) instructional modes.

Areas of study are five general domains for the organization of the content or subject matter of teacher preparation.

A. The general or liberal education which is designed to produce an "educated" person. The studies are those prescribed by the liberal arts faculties of institutions of higher education as the central core of knowledge which must be acquired by all degree candidates. Certain to be included are courses in the humanities, sciences, mathematics, literature, and languages.

B. Specific subjects in the specialty area in which a student intends to teach. Obviously, the choice to teach in primary, secondary, special, or vocational education requires different kinds and degrees of preparation. For example, a student must expect to meet very high competence standards in mathematics if he or she wishes to teach that subject at the high school or vocational school level; less advanced courses in mathematics may be required for primary school teaching.

C. Undergirding disciplines. Each profession has its base in one or more foundational disciplines. The special concerns of the teacher trainees for human development and the efficient operation of social systems would dictate some areas of study -- psychology, for example. Studies included here are basic in nature but selected for relevance to teaching. Though such courses are commonly taught through liberal arts, they could also be part of the school of education.

D. Educational foundations include the humanistic and behavioral studies that form a bridge between undergirding disciplines and their specific application to teaching practices in the schools. Here, for example, are included history (of education), philosophy (as related to basic principles and commitments in education), sociology (as related to the structures and processes of schooling as a social system), and psychology (as related to the studies of learners and the management of instructional procedures). The purpose and processes of schooling are the starting points for studies in educational foundations; while they reflect on education and have meaning for practice, they do not reach the specific level of teaching practice.

E. Professional practice is made up of the specific knowledge, strategies, and models for the professional practice of teachers, as well as consideration of the attitudes and values which must permeate the life and commitments of the truly professional teacher. Among specific studies here would be curriculum, methods of teaching, diagnostic procedures and materials, and systems of instructional management.

The six instructional modes included in the model roughly represent a progression from direct instruction, in which the student in teacher preparation is the object, through intermediate stages where the student begins to take more initiative for managing his or her own learning using special resources and laboratories. Finally, the student is confronted with complex clinical, field, and internship experiences to which he or she is expected to respond in a professional manner. The instructional modes and other features of the model are presented in schematic form in Figure 1.

Across the bottom of the schema presented in Figure 1 is an input-process-output model that indicates the systemic nature of teacher education toward the level of professional competence expected by the profession. Learner accountability is emphasized because admission to and continuance in a profession depend upon the practitioner's mastery and use of the extant professional culture. Implicit in the model is the necessity to clearly specify objectives or standards toward which all work is directed. Implicit also is the need for effective evaluation systems, both formative and summative.

Superimposed diagonally across the matrix formed by the intersection of the columns and rows are three overlapping circles: "modeling," "mentoring," and "tutoring." These designations are characteristics of effective teaching which seem to transcend their mere consideration as strategies of instruction. They are, instead, the essence of greatness in master teachers. "Modeling" refers to behaving in ways that cause the student, whether consciously or unconsciously, to imitate the observed behavior; teacher education universally should exemplify what it explicates. "Mentoring" is the process by which teachers exercise conscious responsibility for personally interceding in the development of the student and helping him or her make wise choices in areas that will determine future directions. Mentoring is individual and highly personal. Studies have shown that most successful persons can identify one or more mentors in their lives. "Tutoring" is one-on-one instruction when the need for such attention is evident. It can be cross-age, peer, professional, or other.

Clusters of Capability in the Preparation Structure

In this final section, consideration is given to each of the ten clusters of capability in the context of the teacher-preparation model. Although brief, the presentation is sufficiently specific to be useful to teacher educators who wish to examine their own programs or to accreditation agencies or other agencies which monitor the operations of teacher-education programs.

The discussion is organized in the form of a chart that consists of three parts: (a) the identification of the cluster; (b) the designation by capital and lower case letters of the areas of study and instructional modes which are involved (for Key, see Fig. 1); and (c) a brief delineation of process guidelines or standards in the area. The selection of areas of study is somewhat arbitrary, since institutions may be organized in different ways and allocate functions accordingly. Similarly, there will be differences in modes between and among institutions.

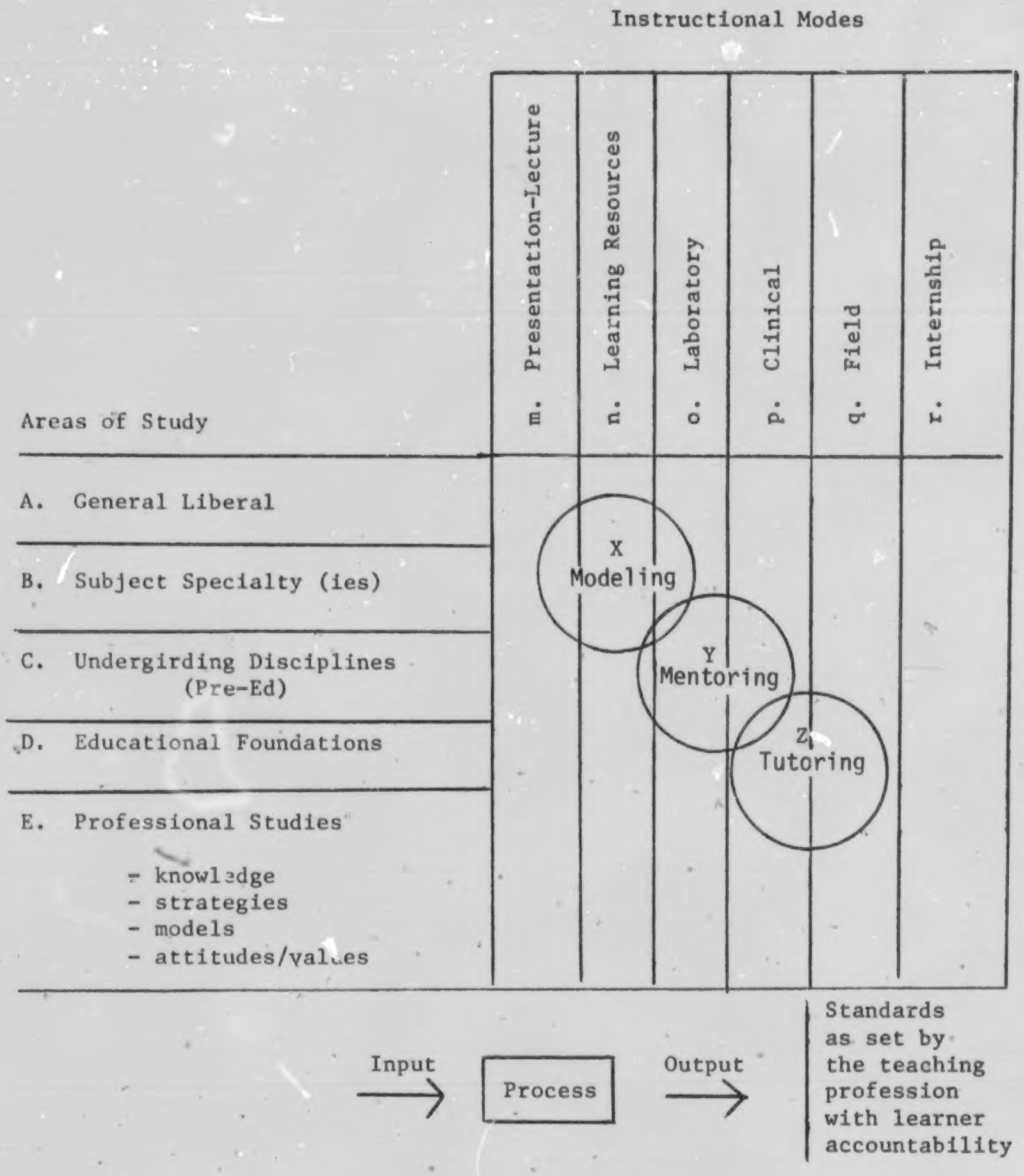
Instructional Modes
m. Presentation-Lecture
n. Learning Resources
o. Laboratory
p. Clinical
q. Field
r. Internship
Areas of Study
A. General Liberal
B. Subject Specialty (ies)
C. Undergirding Disciplines (Pre-Ed)
D. Educational Foundations
E. Professional Studies
- knowledge
- strategies
- models
- attitudes/values
X Modeling
Y Mentoring
Z Tutoring
Input
Process
Output
Standards as set by the teaching profession with learner accountability

Figure 1. The education of professional teachers: Areas of study/ modes of instruction.*

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*Adapted by Robert Howsam from a model first proposed in the bicentennial report of the AACTE on Educating a Profession (Howsam, *et al*., 1976).

Competency Clusters	Areas Study and Instructional Modes	Description
Curriculum	B. Subject Specialty(ies) E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources p. Clinical	Every candidate for teaching should be provided through direct instruction with a knowledge of the school curriculum from kindergarten through high school. They should examine samples of curricular materials in learning resource centers and make observations of instruction in various curricular areas at all levels of schooling. Students should know how curricular decisions are made and be aware of and concerned with proper sequencing and interrelations of curricular components. They should be able to relate curricular topics to basic considerations about the history, purposes, and governance of schooling and to knowledge on human development. They should have experience in planning curricula for individual students, including those whose needs dictate modifications in the ordinary structure of the curriculum.
Teaching Basic Skills	D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be able to teach literacy skills from beginning up to at least fifth-grade level and be proficient in instruction which maintains and advances good literacy skills at advanced levels.[4] This will require familiarity with literacy teaching materials, some clinical (one-on-one or small group) experience, as well as supervised applications in field and internship situations. Similarly, all teachers must be able to teach personal and life-maintenance skills (safety, personal hygiene, mobility, and the like) and take a share of responsibility with all other teachers for instruction in these areas. Teachers should be able to relate instruction in these areas to the purposes of schooling

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[4] For example, regardless of what specialty area of teaching they may be in, teachers should be skilled in introducing new vocabulary, creating the "set" for appropriate forms of reading comprehension, checking on student background (through survey exams), on prerequisite basic skills and concepts for an instructional unit, etc.

		and they should be able to relate their teaching roles to those of specialists in the cases of students who have exceptional needs. Pupils differ in learning rates and power, and even the best teaching is not 100% effective. Thus, it is a normal expectation that every teacher will need "backup" help with some students.
Professional Interactions	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be knowledgeable about processes of consultation, effective communications, and interprofessional planning. This knowledge requires strong elements of preparation in relevant disciplines and educational foundations plus supervised experience in clinical, field, and internship settings. Specific instruction in parent education and counseling should be expected from other professional fields, such as Counseling Psychology.
Teacher-parent-student Relationships	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should have knowledge of the functions of families and how families interact with bureaucratic structures (including the schools) with which family members become involved. They should be especially well informed about difficulties which may arise in school-family interactions when the family is part of a disenfranchised group or when individual students are handicapped. Teachers should have experience at clinical levels and in practicum settings in meeting with parents to plan school programs. They should have experience in working with other professionals in the same context. They should have training and experience in sharing educational tasks with parents.
Pupil and Class Management	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations	All teachers must be skilled in general classroom management procedures, including group processes (e.g., use of heterogeneous cooperative groups), group approaches to creating positive affective climate, and approaches for achieving group attention and

	E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory q. Field r. Internship	individual orientation to task. These competencies call for specific elements of preparation in undergirding disciplines and educational foundations, especially in areas of sociology and social psychology, and for professional instruction and experience in application of procedures in group settings. A specific set of insights into and skills in applied behavior analysis should be included, in which case both clinical and classroom applications should be required.
Individualized Teaching	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be able to carry out individual assessments to establish the developmental level of students in the subject matter being taught, and to identify students who have special needs and learning styles. They should also be able to personalize and adapt assignments and keep records of progress for individual students. They should be able to carry out careful assessments in each domain of instruction. They should be familiar with at least some of the major systems (such as Individually Guided Instruction, Individually Prescribed Instruction, and Computer-Assisted Instruction) for the general management of individualized instruction. This competency cluster calls for strong preparation in criterion- or domain-referenced assessment as well as in norm-referenced testing. Teacher candidates should be expected to participate directly in a variety of supervised clinical studies that involve individualized assessments of the students, parent consultation, communication with diagnostic specialists (i.e., special educators, school psychologists, school social worker, speech-language pathologists, educational audiologists, etc.), observance of due process principles, and the writing of IEPs. It is important that the teacher of teachers provide a model of individualized teaching.
Exceptional Conditions	D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies	All teachers should recognize exceptional conditions in pupils that call for educational adaptations. They should know the key terminology and be able to specify the instructional (and special service) assistance needed to maintain those pupils in regular

	m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	classes. This domain should include presentations to teacher-education students of basic information on exceptionality and common adaptations in regular classes. Also, experiences at clinical, field, and internship levels should include interactions with exceptional students. Although P.L. 94-142 refers only to handicapped students, it is important that teachers be prepared to deal effectively with gifted and talented students as well. Of course, some students will be both handicapped and gifted. All teachers should have knowledge of the major principles and practices derived from research and experience in working with gifted students. Also, all teachers must be committed to and able to competently manage instruction which is multicultural in orientation.
Conferral and Referral	D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should recognize that they can obtain help from teaching colleagues and various specialists and that it is a sign of superior professional ability and stature, not of weakness, to recognize when help is needed and to ask for it, use it, and acknowledge its value. Teachers should be skilled in making and recording systematic observations of their students as a basis for informed referral and consultation. This competency cluster also calls for knowledge of the roles of various specialists, as well as clinical experience in referral procedures. All teachers should be generally familiar with the full range of special services both within the schools and in the broader community.
Student-Student Relationships	C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture	All teachers should be prepared to manage with high skill the relations among their students in "peer tutoring," "cross-age tutoring," and other group activities. Teachers should be skilled in giving students developmental perspectives about their own problems and concerns, in teaching them to be mutually helpful and supportive to one another, and in giving them increasing responsibility for helping to manage the educational

	n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory q. Field r. Internship	environment. This set of competencies requires strong orientation in developmental and counseling psychology as well as supervised experiences in laboratory, clinical, field, and internship settings.
Professional Values	A. General Liberal C. Undergirding Disciplines D. Educational Foundations E. Professional Studies m. Presentation-Lecture n. Learning Resources o. Laboratory p. Clinical q. Field r. Internship	All teachers should be well informed concerning such concepts as "right to education," "least restrictive alternative," and "due process," particularly as they relate to education for children from minority groups and those who are handicapped. They should make professional commitments to the realization of the values which these concepts represent. To achieve the goals in this area it is essential that prospective teachers receive relevant instruction as part of their general, foundational, and professional studies; perhaps even more essential is that the attitudes be modeled by their instructors and be fully exemplified in the field and internship settings used for teacher preparation.

Some Implications

Obviously, the preceding statement has been developed from a particular perspective, derived from considering the principles of Public Law 94-142. Although this important law has surprisingly complex and fundamental implications for teacher preparation, it is clear that the contents of this paper represent only a part of what needs to be considered in the formulation of a total program for teacher preparation. Thus, it is intended that this statement be used as a stimulus for creating a broader set of alternative statements about teacher education in general.

A number of teacher educators and other persons who are interested in teacher education have prepared responses to this paper in which they consider the broader implications for all of teacher education. They raise critical issues about teacher preparation, such as the time and resources necessary for effective teacher preparation. Perhaps this is the time and occasion to agree solidly upon just how much time it does take to prepare teachers for entry to the profession and to settle for no less than that time. Other major issues surely needing attention include the following:

- How do we arrange instruction in undergirding disciplines and educational foundations that, besides reflecting disciplinary structures, also reflects the structures and realities of teaching/learning problems in the schools?
- How can we arrange for sufficient flexibility in staffing teacher education programs so that new elements of importance can be drawn from various departments of the college or university?
- How can we arrange the continuing development of present teacher education faculties so that they can competently address the emerging new issues and challenges in teacher education?
- Are we expecting too much of the great mass of "regular" teachers and do we need to work through a differentiated staffing strategy as we try to meet added challenges in the classroom?
- What are the implications of Public Law 94-142 and other new forces for change for the preparation of non-teaching school personnel?

This statement was prepared in the belief that Public Law 94-142 reverberates against the basic structures of teacher preparation -- that it amounts to a new and urgent call for examining the basic content and structure of teacher preparation. It is hoped that this statement and the set of responding papers will become one force in energizing a new and more searching look at teacher preparation, not only by teacher educators but, also, by other persons, such as policy makers and interested citizens, who believe that effective education for handicapped students requires fundamental improvements in the preparation and performance of all educators. (See prevailing and preferred practices in Reynolds and Birch [1978].) It is time to raise public school teaching to the important professional status which it deserves and which the schools and the public interest require.

At the time of this writing, work is underway in the office of the National Support Systems Project at the University of Minnesota to analyze each of the ten competency clusters and the major elements of processes of teacher education to delineate a set of topics -- perhaps 30 to 40 in number -- on which efforts will be concentrated to develop materials useful in teacher education situations. The materials will be oriented, first, to assessment; that is, they will be useful to teacher educators who wish to examine their own competencies and the teacher preparation programs they conduct for coverage of certain critical topics. Second, they will provide sketches of the knowledge and skill bases included under each topic; these should provide "starters" for teacher educators who wish to make new efforts for improvement in the selected areas. These materials should make it possible for teacher-preparing institutions to "map" their strengths, weaknesses, and needs in relation to the crucial content and processes outlined in earlier portions of this paper.

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A LIBERAL ARTS RESPONSE TO THE CONCEPT OF A COMMON BODY OF PRACTICE

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The expression applied to a person who behaves in an outlandish fashion suggests that he or she is either a knave or a fool. Although my commitment to the goals of Public Law 94-142 is sufficiently great to eliminate anxiety about the first possible designation, my lack of experience with the implementation of the law may make it difficult for me to avoid the second. Nonetheless, it is my purpose to speak as best I can to the issues raised by the Challenge paper -- from the vantage point of one who was educated in a large university system but has since spent some 20 years working with teacher education programs in small liberal arts colleges.

Before plunging into a discussion of the issues raised by the concept paper, it is important to remind readers that liberal arts colleges, as a category, include institutions of great diversity with respect to size, philosophy, scope of program, and financial circumstance. Thus, my reactions reflect only one perspective; I do not presume to imply any kind of agreement among liberal arts colleges about teacher education.

In this paper's first section, I discuss the impact of Public Law 94-142 on teacher education programs in liberal arts colleges. The second section delineates what I perceive to be the major issues raised by the Challenge paper's assumptions and recommendations, specifically, (a) the philosophical issues related to the suggestion that the Individualized Education Program (IEP) be made the focus for a professional culture; (b) the extent to which that paper's recommendations appear to attribute little value to liberal studies and to inflate the professional education component of a teacher preparation program to an undesirable, unnecessary, and unrealistic degree; and (c) the extent to which that paper deals primarily with Public Law 94-142 in developing the identified competencies rather than treating the law as part of a more comprehensive demand for the individualization of instruction. The final section is an attempt to develop a few guidelines which a liberal arts college might employ in restructuring its programs in teacher education to comply with the demand of Public Law 94-142 and the essence of the common body of practice.

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The Impact of Public Law 94-142 on Liberal Arts Programs

One cannot assess the impact of Public Law 94-142 on teacher education programs which are based in small, liberal arts colleges without considering the events that preceded the law and the context from which it evolved. Civil rights legislation led logically to mandates for multicultural education, the elimination of sexism as well as racism in school and society, and the implicit recognition of the school as a proper vehicle for social reform. All these developments owe their existence, at least in part, to the changing conception of equality of educational opportunity from the nineteenth century version -- which meant giving all learners access to the same curriculum -- to the current view that true equality requires differentiated and unequal learning opportunities. Few would quarrel with the idea that every individual in our society has an equal right of access to educational experiences that foster opportunities for maximum participation in all of society.

Once one moves beyond these kinds of basic generalizations to determine ways in which generally accepted ideals are to be achieved, however, honest disagreements arise concerning interpretations and the implications of interpretations. Furthermore, as is often the case, a dedication to new values does not obviate old ones or other new ones; hence, a competitive situation arises in which equally important values must compete for whatever "life space" is available. (Howsam, *et al.*, 1976.) Such is decidedly the case when one considers the impact of Public Law 94-142 on teacher education programs in liberal arts colleges. The legislation comes on the heels of human relations requirements, multicultural requirements, drug education requirements, increasing demands for greater methodological skills, and a current tendency toward certification requirements that favor broad subject area approaches rather than depth in a particular discipline.

For many liberal arts colleges, the added demands of Public Law 94-142 could be the last straw the forces them either to abandon their teacher preparation function or to accept the kind of restructuring of teacher education programs that is called for in the concept paper. The current practice of enlarging course requirements without increasing credit, in order to keep professional education requirements within accepted boundaries, is unfair to both students and faculty members. A sizable proportion of students in my own institution already are finding it necessary to do student teaching after graduation, which means that they are spending four and one-third years to earn a four-year degree. Given rising tuition rates, few can afford the added expenditure of time and money.

Public Law 94-142 poses not only a life space problem for the liberal arts college but, also, a staffing problem. Since many of these kinds of colleges have small faculties, they may not have the necessary specialization to provide all the learning experiences required, nor are their student enrollments sufficiently large to warrant staff additions.

If a liberal arts college chooses to restructure rather than to abandon its program in teacher education, it must deal with some difficult questions: how much additional knowledge and skill is needed by the regular classroom teacher? How much life space must be added to the professional education component of a student's program to develop these additional competencies? How can the liberal arts college meet these new values without violating old ones -- for example, a commitment to the idea that the best base for good teaching is a sound program of liberal studies combining breadth and depth in a particular discipline? To what extent can one rely on the transfer value of such a base; must every skill and competency be taught directly? How much competence is it reasonable to expect in establishing criteria for admission to a teacher education program? How much attention should one pay to other important values receiving emphasis at this time -- for example, global education, environmental education, moral education, and law-related education?

The proposed common body of practice speaks to many of these questions either directly or indirectly. The following section deals with several major issues that arise in attempting to use the concept paper as a basis for restructuring teacher education within a liberal arts context.

Major Issues Raised by the Challenge Paper

The IEP as the focus for a professional culture. The Challenge paper presents a number of valid arguments to support the position that the IEP represents a natural focus for the development of a professional culture. Perhaps basic to all the arguments is the assertion in the third section that the culture is based on "the concept of optimal individual development, it demands of teachers broad knowledge and refined abilities to diagnose, treat, and evaluate across the broad range of children's educational needs." Whereas one can agree that designing an IEP demands the kinds of skills and abilities described in cluster 8, using the IEP as a focus for a professional culture raises some serious practical and philosophical questions.

1. Using the IEP in this manner smacks of a pathological model that is inadequate to cover the full range of services required of teachers. An IEP must be sufficiently specific to identify high-priority goals and to give direction to instruction; it is doubtful whether IEPs could or should be written to cover the whole range of growth and development which must be of concern to teachers at all times. Although it can be argued that IEPs could be written to focus on important teacher behaviors, such as stimulating curiosity, encouraging creativity, and promoting interests and concerns related to the common good, there is a real danger that less than adequate attention will be given to such important educational goals because of the requirement that IEPs be specifically based on the perceived education needs of learners. Thus, the IEP should serve as one important tool rather than as the only shaper of the professional culture.

2. This method appears to emphasize diversity without due regard for the human universals that make us intelligible to each other and, thus, facilitate positive, rewarding human interactions. All human beings share emotions and existential concerns, such as death, sadness, joy, guilt, the need for belonging, and achievement. The literature relating to Public Law 94-142 is replete with exhortations not to exaggerate differences, not to set up false dichotomies between handicapped and "normal" persons. In a touching article, Jean Fox (1978) describes her school experiences as a polio victim forced to rely on leg braces or a wheelchair. She supports emphasizing what the child can do, not what he or she cannot do. May it not be better also to prepare teachers to emphasize ways in which the handicapped child is like other children rather than different? Such an emphasis need not obscure the need to individualize, but can put it in a more appropriate perspective by providing a common base from which individualization can emerge.

3. Somewhat related to the second question is that of whether the IEP, as it is described in the Challenge paper, would place sufficient emphasis on primary educational goals as a basis for determining "children's

educational needs." Education must concern itself with a host of societal values that exist independently of individual differences and are related only indirectly to individual educational needs -- for example, values relating to justice, "the common good," freedom, privacy, global education, peace, and respect for individuals regardless of race, ethnicity, creed, or sex.

4. It is not clear that there is an adequate research base to make individualization the focus for instruction and professional preparation. Researchers such as Snow and Crombach (1976) assert that we know little about the effects of various "treatments," except that there is a kind of immutable law that adaptive techniques which are better for some children are, by the same token, worse for others. If we accept this conclusion, what risks do we run in asking relatively uninformed persons such as teachers and parents to be overly specific and technical about the diagnosis and treatment of children's educational needs?

5. Undue emphasis on the concept of the IEP may lead to the preparation of teachers for a world that does not and will not exist. The concept paper assumes that the IEP soon will be the basis of instruction for all children. Given the legal provisions of Public Law 94-142, there is a strong possibility that rights granted in the law soon will be extended to all children. However, it is less clear how the public and the schools will respond. Lacking the necessary funds to do otherwise, many school districts already have found shortcuts; commercial establishments already are mass producing and marketing IEPs, presumably in response to the demand created by the teachers' lack of time to devise them independently. Will the public give up the economy of group instruction and support the costs of complying with the spirit and intent of Public Law 94-142, as well as with other legislation pointing toward individualization? Will individualization be another symptom of what Lortie (1976) called the pathology of American public education, namely, the "oversell and underdeliver syndrome"? I am not arguing against preparing teachers to engage in individualizing instruction. Instead, I support a broader focus for professional preparation that would enable the candidate to develop competencies associated with the IEP within a larger context.

The larger-scale dimensions of the professional education component. The model presented in the Challenge paper would appear to inflate the professional education component of a teacher education program to an extent that is undesirable, unnecessary, and unrealistic, at least from a liberal arts point of view. It is undesirable because, given the framework of current four-year programs, it would appear to usurp too much of the life space occupied by liberal studies. The model does not appear to recognize the potential contributions of these studies to the development of a professional culture for teachers. Areas "A" and "B" (the liberal studies and subject specialty aspects of teacher education) are seldom related to developing the identified competency clusters of the model. Nor are they considered as a substantial base that could represent a point of departure for refining and improving certain skills through the clinical and field experiences which are provided in the professional component.

Is it really necessary for all elementary and secondary teachers to have all the competencies identified in the clusters? To the liberal arts proponent, it appears that the concept of developing a professional culture, however meritorious, has taken precedence over the need to economize with regard to the amount of professional training required of teachers. Further, the recommendations tend to include skills for the implementation of differentiated staffing strategies while, at the same time, giving the impression that all teachers need a vast number of common competencies. Does the search for a professional culture lead logically to the assumption that elementary and secondary teachers should share the same culture? To what extent must the professional culture of the classroom teacher and the special education teacher overlap? Do all elementary and secondary teachers need to have direct instruction in school curriculum, in all subjects, from K-12? Is it really necessary for secondary teachers in all subject fields to know how to teach letter formation, for example? Do all secondary teachers need to be able to teach literacy skills "from the beginning up to at least fifth-grade level"? If a student enrolled at the upper level needs lower level skills in one area, cannot an elementary or special education teacher provide the expertise needed to develop and implement an appropriate plan?

Similarly, is it not possible to divide responsibility for teaching advanced level skills among specialists who are already receiving training in those areas -- for example, reading and writing to English and social studies teachers, health to home economics and physical education teachers, consumerism and law to social studies teachers? This is not to say that all teachers ought not be prepared to model literacy skills as well as personal development and life maintenance skills; the question is whether they also need to be able to instruct in these areas.

Finally, it would appear that the large professional education component envisioned in the Challenge paper is unrealistic in that it could not be completed in a four-year program without sacrificing other important areas; a five-year program is not a reasonable alternative for the high-cost, private liberal arts college at this time. In fact, such a move could spell disaster.

How many students, or parents of students, will pay the high cost of private education for five years when the rate of returns is so low? Even with a four-year requirement, students have sometimes reported being "strongly urged" by parents to transfer to public institutions after they had decided to become teachers rather than lawyers or doctors. While the added investment of graduation from a prestigious institution is viewed as having a "pay-off" value in law and medicine, this is not the case with teaching. One frequently encounters students on financial aid who will transfer rather than incur the debt of four years of private education with the prospect of having to pay back the borrowed money out of a teacher's salary. How much greater would this problem be if the program requirement were increased from four to five years?

Another question which must be studied relates to popular opinion regarding the employability of persons with M. A. degrees in today's teacher market. It may be that students who have expended additional time and funds in completing a five-year program would be at a serious disadvantage in finding a teaching position.

A five-year teacher preparation program in a liberal arts college would appear to be a viable option only if one or more of the following conditions were present: (a) available market research demonstrated that students would enter such programs and that they would be employable upon completion; (b) the cost of the added year were subsidized with public monies to offset the low rate of return; (c) teachers' salaries were increased dramatically to offset the high cost of professional preparation; and (d) states mandated a five-year program for all entry level positions to avoid employment discrimination against applicants holding advanced degrees.

Public Law 94-142: A discrete entity or part of a larger context? Although in the Challenge paper the IEP is proposed as the focus for restructuring an entire professional culture, and the clusters of identified competencies apply to other aspects of teaching as well, the analyses and illustrations are largely concerned with the skills needed to carry out the requirements of Public Law 94-142. This emphasis creates some uncertainty about how other conditions requiring individualized instruction would be incorporated into the model. It would seem appropriate to avoid unnecessary repetition in a professional program by treating all handicapping conditions, those included in Public Law 94-142 as well as those resulting from race, culture, or sex, as variations on a common theme. Thus, the focus would be on individualizing instruction rather than on the specific conditions giving rise to the need. It would seem appropriate for certifying and accrediting agencies to address the issue of individualized instruction for all kinds of differences rather than instituting separate standards for each one.

In summary, the issues raised in this section point to a need for further discussion of and deliberation on certain aspects of the proposed model. However, one cannot dismiss the validity of many of the recommendations. There seems little doubt that many of the identified competencies must be achieved and that the professional education component of teacher preparation programs needs to be expanded.

In the final section of this paper, I will present a few illustrative guidelines for modifying the model so that a liberal arts college may restructure its programs without destroying its basic values. They do not represent a complete model and are offered solely for the purpose of providing some areas for discussion.

Some Proposed Guidelines for a Liberal Arts College

1. Liberal arts colleges should reaffirm and maintain their commitment to prepare teachers in the liberal arts tradition -- teachers who exhibit both breadth and depth of knowledge. The breadth represented by the general education component provides experiences with the structure and methodology of several disciplines, as these provide a framework for advancing knowledge about ourselves and the world in which we live. It is only through the study in depth of a particular discipline that students cultivate the higher cognitive levels of thought we expect them to teach and model for students -- for example, skill in analysis, synthesis, and application. A program allowing for electives is important to personal growth and development.

Education for a pluralistic society needs teachers who reflect a variety of educational traditions. The teacher-scholar concept may no longer be viable in its pure form. However, as a hybrid of scholar and technician, the liberal arts graduate should incline toward the scholar end of the continuum -- particularly in programs preparing teachers for secondary schools. If liberal arts colleges can no longer produce a distinctive type of teacher reflecting the strengths of their institutions, they may as well heed the advice of those who think they should quit the business.

2. The professional culture of a teacher prepared in the liberal arts tradition should focus not on the IEP but on the capability for reflective, humanistic, democratic goal setting and problem solving. This is a primary goal of liberal studies; it is a basic competency for teachers; and it is transferable to a variety of teaching tasks and situations. Making this goal the focus accomplishes two important objectives: (a) it places some of the responbility for developing teaching competencies on the liberal arts component where it most assuredly ought to be, and (b) it makes it possible for professional programs to concentrate on providing opportunities for the further refinement and development of skills already present. In this approach, study areas "A" and "B" (general liberal education and subject-matter specialty) would be directly associated with each competency cluster.

3. Selection and retention criteria for teacher education should be developed to assure that candidates have achieved a satisfactory level of competence in basic liberal arts skills, including social skills and attitudes as well as intellectual skills. As in other professions such as medicine and law, those persons failing to meet such criteria should not be admitted to teacher education programs. This condition would reduce the scope of the professional education component in that it would not be necessary to provide instruction in skills which should have been developed elsewhere. Also, if after admission some students demonstrate deficiencies in certain areas, the solution should not be to create and require a remedial course for all students. Instead, as in the IEP model, the deficiencies should be eliminated on an individual basis.

If teacher educators continue in their reluctance to enforce strict admission requirements, they can work with colleagues in liberal arts departments to develop IEPs for students needing remedial work before admission; however, the responsibility for implementing and evaluating such work should rest with the major department until such time as the student applies for readmission. This approach would appear to be realistic, given the opportunities for cooperation among faculty members from different departments in a small college.

Experience has demonstrated that it is not necessary to teach each competency directly when one is dealing with students who demonstrate intelligence, initiative, and resourcefulness. Students who have learned some basic approaches to identifying and obtaining the information they need to carry out a particular task can learn to do many things without benefit of direct instruction.

Illustrative of the kinds of skills (included in the model) which should be developed prior to admission to the professional program are effective communication, ability to work and plan cooperatively with others, the development of attitudes and values appropriate to professional teachers, and the ability to model literacy, personal development, and life maintenance skills. To this list one could add many others -- for example, ability to make critical judgments; ability to recognize congruencies and inconsistencies in data; skills in making decisions, conducting research, and studying independently; sensitivity to a wide variety of emotions and values; compassion; and understanding.

4. Courses in the foundations of a discipline ought to offer opportunities to examine theories within the context of direct experience; persons teaching these courses also should be involved in the supervision of clinical, field, or internship experiences. The small and unspecialized nature of a liberal arts education faculty can be exploited to advantage in this area.

At times, the Challenge paper seems to imply that foundational studies are unrelated to teaching, as in the third section: ". . . these subjects can be regarded only as foundational; they provide an understanding of education but they do not prepare anyone to 'practice' education." It is doubtful whether anyone should be permitted to practice education without such courses, since their function is to provide a framework for practice. They should present theories and categories that initially guide and organize observation and, later, give meaning to technical operations carried on by the candidate. However, not all foundations courses fulfill this function.

Perhaps the first step in restructuring this aspect of teacher education is to place persons teaching foundations courses in situations in which they must apply their theories to concrete situations. If they can do so for themselves, they are more likely to do it for students. Also, if students are engaged in clinical or field experiences as part of a foundations course, they will raise questions that relate theory to practice.

5. If liberal arts colleges are to fulfill their commitment to traditional values, they must seek further economy in the professional education program by assuming a differentiated staff approach to teaching. Given inescapable time limitations, it is better that faculty members have specialized rather than only generalized skills. Most schools should be able to develop a staff that includes someone having the skills needed for any particular student. The professional culture concept adopted in the Challenge paper does not seem feasible unless one establishes different cultures for elementary and secondary teachers. Even in this instance, the competencies included would have to be narrowed considerably.

6. The small college can achieve further economy of time in the professional education component by exploiting opportunities for continuity of student experiences through continued association with the same faculty members. Although there may be disadvantages at times, learning can occur very effectively and efficiently when a candidate has the same person as an instructor for a methods class, as a supervisor of related clinical and field experiences, and again as a supervisor of student teaching or internship. The college supervisor can provide a clear and consistent direction for the development of the candidate as a teacher, while the participation of school personnel provides the necessary experience with different values, situations, and techniques. Further advantages accrue from the fact that the faculty supervisor has a firsthand opportunity to assess and improve the effectiveness of his or her methods class.

7. Programs should be designed to teach important skills as the most effective time and place. For example, since the skills and knowledge which are outlined in the referral cluster will vary to some extent from school to school, it would probably be more efficient to teach the referral concept within the specific context of the student teaching or internship setting. As suggested in the paper, it is sensible that teachers study a given handicapping condition in depth when they are dealing with it.

8. The final proposal for the restructuring of liberal arts programs for teachers relates to the need to increase the total preparation time. Even if the economies described earlier are achieved with regard to the professional education component, the fact remains that there is simply too much to be accomplished without violating the liberal arts college practice of limiting the time allocated to professional education to one-sixth of the total program for secondary teachers, approximately one-fourth for elementary teachers. It was stated earlier that a five-year

program is not viewed as a viable option for the high-cost, private college at the present time. Is there another alternative?

It seems reasonable to expect that if the public supports the measures that have resulted in increased responsibilities for schools and teachers, it also should support the idea of providing additional training for teachers at public expense. For example, a four-year program plus a full-year internship might well provide the necessary time to develop most of the recommended competencies. Colleges could engage in cooperative arrangements with school districts so that candidates could earn one-half to two-thirds pay for services rendered. Different models could be explored within this framework; full-time student teaching with no pay for a period of from 12-16 weeks and then full pay at the level of a beginning teacher for the rest of the year; or 1/2 or 2/3 pay for a comparable teaching load for the entire year. If it is demonstrated that school districts lack sufficient resources to make this approach feasible, a state or Federal program to provide funds should be established. Such funding also must include money to cover the cost of intensive supervision by college and school personnel, and money to provide inservice workshops conducted by persons representing areas of specialization that are lacking in a small college staff. In this regard, it would seem desirable for small colleges to establish cooperative arrangements with larger institutions rather than to duplicate services.

As in the case with most challenges presented to teacher educators, the challenge of Public Law 94-142 and the recommendations of the concept paper are less formidable than the task of finding the financial resources required to do what must be and can be done. The public must display a greater willingness to put its money where its ideals are than it has in the past, if Public Law 94-142 is to escape the fate of becoming an additional example of the "oversell and under-deliver" syndrome Lortie discusses.

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ACCEPTING THE CHALLENGE FOR CHANGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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Identifying a common body of practice for educators poses many challenges to teacher education. The concept of "clusters of capabilities" common to all teachers of children and youth forces reexamination of many of our assumptions about teaching and learning. These assumptions relate not only to curricular patterns but, also, to instructional modes, organizational and support structures, and resource allocations. Thus, we suggest in this paper that modifications of some of the traditional assumptions are necessary to make teacher education responsive to sweeping changes in the social order exemplified by Public Law 94-142.

Schools and teacher education institutions now suffer from a series of dualisms that impede their effectiveness. An attempt to eliminate or, at least, to reduce three of them -- the general/special education dualism, the theory/practice gap, and the campus/field dichotomy -- is central to the Challenge paper, and represents an objective implicit in the following remarks. The complexity of the task and limitations of space combine to permit attention to only one of the ten competency areas identified: the professional interactions cluster. A similar exploration of each of the other areas is needed to provide a basis for the fundamental reforms which are essential.

Demands for Reform Continue

The idea of massive reform in teacher education is clearly not new. In a bicentennial commission report issued by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the authors observed that "All of us have known for decades that teacher education has never been adequate . . . that changing conditions have made teaching progressively more difficult . . . . For too long, teachers and teacher education have proclaimed their professional status, knowing that it was more aspiration than reality" (Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, & Nash, 1976). In the late 1940s and 1950s, academics like Bestor (1955) and Lynd (1950) spoke of educational wastelands and quackery in the teacher colleges. The launching of Sputnik in the late 1950s triggered a wave of concern about the inadequacies of science curricula in the schools and teaching in the various subject areas.

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Soon after the emphasis on the disciplines by scholars like Bruner (1960) and Conant (1964) came an awakened interest in the education of the disadvantaged and culturally different. Social, economic, and political concerns permeated the consciousness of many Americans during the 1960s, and those who aspired to the "Great Society" looked to the schools to alleviate many of the grinding social ills of the era. Schools were being judged inadequate to these challenges; critics like Silberman (1970) blamed the shortcomings on the mindlessness of teacher education institutions. Recently, the press for accountability has stirred much interest in a competency-based approach, an emphasis that has implied many changes in teacher education and certification practices.

In the 1930s and 1940s, social reconstructionist educators like Counts posed the question, "Dare the schools build a new social order?" They wondered whether schools could become a major force in societal change. The emphasis on human rights generated after World War II, which led to the struggle for civil rights and, recently, to the legal mandate guaranteeing educational rights to handicapped children and youth, has caused many educators to ask instead whether educational change can keep pace with social reform.

The enactment of Public Law 94-142 represents a major cultural reform. It provides the impetus for sweeping educational change. Schools, rather than serving as a conscience for society and a stimulus for societal reconstruction, are struggling to respond to the legislative mandates of our nation. If Gallagher's (1978) description of education as a "mirror of society" is accepted, the image will remain distorted until major educational reforms are effected.

Although changes in our public schools seem to be lagging behind compliance with the legislative mandate of Public Law 94-142, implementation of the law in school systems is already occurring at a faster rate than comparable change in teacher education programs (Martin, 1974; Sharp, 1978). Teacher education institutions have been extremely slow to change.

Many have not even begun to develop programs that prepare regular classroom teachers to work with exceptional children. Gene Hall (1978) and his colleagues concluded, through their research, that "change is a process, not an event," but the process in teacher education must begin immediately if we are to remain relevant to the needs of the profession (Paul, Turnbull, & Cruickshank, 1977).

Forces for reform. Research and technological developments during the past decade have improved our chances of success in redesigning teacher education to meet current educational needs. One body of significant research relates to attitudinal change. It suggests, among other things, that exposure of non-handicapped to handicapped individuals alone is insufficient for the development of positive attitudes toward integration. Instead, exposure combined with carefully designed educational support procedures can change the attitudes of both children and adults (see summary in Morsink, 1979).

A second body of relevant research was developed in segregated special education environments during the time when exceptional individuals were excluded from the mainstream of education. The research demonstrated that handicapped individuals can learn, rather than documenting the reasons for their failure. It indicated that early identification and treatment can prevent many handicapping conditions, that special techniques and materials -- such as engineered classrooms, diagnostic-prescriptive teaching, and objective-based instruction -- can facilitate learning in exceptional individuals. And it provided a new perspective on the reentry of such persons into the public educational system if the system will use the results of research to help these individuals realize their potential for growth (see summary by Thomas, 1979).

A third body of significant research relates to the process of change itself. As a result of intensive studies by the Rand Corporation (summarized by McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978) and by representatives of the higher education community (see Arends & Arends, 1978; Hall, 1978), we have gained insight into processes which can help us to effect change in educational institutions.

We know more than before about how to change attitudes, how to foster learning in exceptional individuals, and how to facilitate educational change. We will continue to increase our knowledge base in these and other relevant areas, but we know enough now to provide a basis for a bold new view of teacher education. Although there is still much to be learned, the insights we have gained in the last decade can greatly enhance our chances of success in designing teacher education programs that will produce competent professionals.

The prognosis for success in reforming teacher education is now further supported by increased sources of support for change. A recent report by the Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers (1976) disclosed that teacher education has been receiving a lower level of financial support than any other professional program in higher education. Frequently, shrinking higher education budgets lend little encouragement to teacher educators; however, several other factors suggest some promise for the future. One is the continuation of support by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped to schools, colleges, and departments of education through Deans' Grants, which provide small but strategic amounts of money to support curricular change and staff development.

Another promising factor is the recent introduction of a bill in Congress to provide financial help for colleges of education interested in program revision and role reexamination (S. 360, the Schools of Education Assistance Act). Unlike previous legislation relating to personnel development, teacher centers, and similar measures, S. 360 proposes direct financial aid to existing schools of education.

A third encouraging development that may impinge on the funding levels of teacher education programs is the improved relationship now developing between teacher organizations and teacher education institutions. A strong liaison between the field practitioners and teacher education units cannot fail to provide a more compelling basis for expenditures that support quality professional programs in teacher education.

Thus, the call for change in teacher education is not new. There are, however, two promising developments that make change more possible now than ever before: an expanding knowledge base for teaching growing out of research and technology, and funding sources required to support such change.

Changing Teacher Roles Require Changes in Teacher Education

One important implication of Public Law 94-142 for teacher education relates to the conception of roles appropriate both to regular classroom teachers and to teachers prepared in special education programs. The old concept of the "egg carton school" -- organized into a series of separate compartments, each containing a standard size group of learners and a single teacher -- is no longer meaningful. Instead, schools committed to implementing the intent of Public Law 94-142 will need to bring together teams of teachers and other instructional personnel who represent collectively the broad range of expertise necessary to meet a variety of learning needs. Such teams will expand the concept of diagnosis beyond the assignment of a label based on a child's deficits to the development of alternative programs and experiences that will be responsive to the child's needs. Membership on a diagnostic team will require the teacher to be an inquirer, an individual disposed to explore, to wonder, to consider alternatives, and to collect data systematically in order to modify practice. This role implies that the present separation between educational research and classroom practice must be resolved, enabling teachers to use systematic study results instead of personal experience or conjecture to make classroom decisions.

Teacher education programs must provide students with opportunities for a variety of experiences to facilitate their learning the roles of team member and diagnostician. Students must be able to engage in experimentation; they must be permitted to formulate data and speculate on their consequences; and they must become involved with experienced teams of teachers who are engaged in active research to improve their own instructional practices. Suggestions for achieving this goal are presented in the following sections.

Structural/System Changes Implied

Substantial changes will be required in teacher education curricula and instructional modes to prepare teachers for these new roles. These changes suggest a need for fundamental modifications of the organizational structure of teacher education units and the development of new support systems to encourage collaborative efforts.

The new program emphases on teaming and diagnostic teaching call for new kinds of relationships among teacher educators. It is unlikely that we can achieve significant improvements in the integration of learning experiences and the linkage among program components with an organizational structure that reflects fragmentation and artificial subdivisions. Many colleges of education have been organized into departments that are reflections of academic specializations. Although such a structure may support graduate study in education, it may, in fact, impede the kind of integrated experience essential for effective preservice teacher preparation. It may be necessary, therefore, to reorganize schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) and to bring together faculty members from a range of specialty areas to improve their common task of teacher preparation.

Restructuring organizational patterns. A number of colleges and universities have already begun to break down old special education/regular education and campus/field dichotomies. The programs at the University of Oregon and Augustana College are illustrative of these reorganization efforts.

Gilberts and Weisenstein (1978) describe the reorganization of the College of Education at the University of Oregon. Using a planning model, the Oregon group solicited suggestions from a diverse constituency through three advisory task forces that included field personnel. A college of education with 180 faculty members, 1100 undergraduates, and 500 graduate students, Oregon was reorganized from eight traditional departments to three divisions: Teacher Education, Center for Educational Policy and Management, and Developmental Studies. Teacher Education presently includes both Curriculum and Instruction and Special Education, with offices located in the same building. This administrative structure and physical proximity has encouraged collaborative research and planning. Oregon has both noncategorical special education certification and dual (regular/special education) teacher certification. Certification requirements, as well as newly acquired faculty members with both C & I and Special Education backgrounds, were viewed as catalysts in the reorganization effort.

Gerlach (1977) illustrates how a small private college can restructure its program. Augustana College, in Sioux Falls, South Dakota, has a total enrollment of 2,200 students, with 41 faculty members in the Department of Education. Prior to reorganization, Education and Special Education were two separate departments, housed in different buildings. The special education faculty members now serve as resource persons for the regular education faculty, and the two groups meet for planning, sharing, and staff development activities. Members of the reorganized faculty have assumed responsibility for preparing all teachers to meet the special needs of all children by incorporating into each methods course a section on dealing with children with special needs. There is a reciprocal relationship between field and campus in the new program, with faculty members becoming involved in field placements and field personnel serving as advisors on curricular development. Thus, in both a large state university and a small private college, reorganization has been used as a means of strengthening and integrating the program.

Supporting collaborative efforts. There are, however, alternatives to massive administrative reorganization. Relatively minor changes in existing role expectations and reward structures could also facilitate the kind of collaborative effort required by new programs. As they presently exist, role expectations and reward structures within schools, colleges, and departments of education encourage individual achievement, such as campus-based solo teaching and single-author publication (see Drew & Perry, 1978; Gilberts & Weisenstein, 1978). Existing structures seem to discourage the collaboration that will be essential at many levels: between students, among faculty members with different specialty areas, between college and public school personnel, and with professionals in related human service areas. In the rest of this section, several possibilities are offered for developing support systems for collaboration within existing frameworks.

SCDEs could encourage joint research by making resources for publication more readily available to collaborators. These resources include, for example, assistance with research design, data analysis, professional editing, and manuscript preparation. Imagine the impact if faculty members engaged in collaborative research and publication related to program design were given priority in the use of these resources! A college-wide advisory group could determine the direction of program change and the questions for study, and it could review proposals for program-related research, selecting those with the greatest potential impact on program redesign.

As institutions of higher education (IHEs) initiate efforts to upgrade the quality of training programs, they will find it increasingly important to link their training efforts to those offered by field personnel. IHEs might support the efforts of field personnel by appointing them to adjunct faculty positions. These positions would carry status as well as access to campus facilities, such as libraries, laboratories, and opportunities in continuing education. Performance criteria for adjuncts would be developed jointly by campus and field personnel; adjuncts would have their competency validated through observations conducted by teams of professionals. The rank of adjunct, therefore, would have real meaning -- that of a respected field practitioner who collaborates with campus-based faculty as an equal partner in the educational process.

The sabbatical leave is another existing support structure which could be used in new ways to encourage collaboration between college faculty and field personnel. The institution could give priority to requests for sabbaticals in which the faculty member would engage in program redesign through collaboration with other members of the human services professions. This policy could encourage college professors to work in public agencies, to conduct on-site follow-up of graduates, or to return to the public schools as teachers, administrators, counselors, or participant/observers. The experiences would provide faculty members with opportunities to renew their perceptions of school and the roles which they prepare their graduates to perform.

The preceding suggestions simply illustrate the many alternatives for the support of collaborative efforts. Each is slightly different but all have something in common: They are ways to support the development, implementation, and validation of a common, integrated body of professional knowledge.

The Need for Adequate "Life Space"

Important as they are, efforts at more functional organizational structures and reward systems supportive of collaboration are not enough. The "life space" (Howsam *et al.*, 1976) available to carry out the task of preparing a professional teacher to meet the complex demands of today's classroom is grossly inadequate. In a recent address to the AACTE annual conference concerned with inservice education, Howsam (1979) pointed out that teaching is the only profession that assumes an initial training deficit for entrants to its practice. Certification policies for teachers frequently establish a requirement of additional formal study after a period of teaching that may range from 3-10 years. Although the concept of continuing education is a desirable one for any profession, and indeed is a rapidly growing trend in professions like medicine, other professional practitioners enter practice after a training program that is considered adequate to provide individuals with the basic preparation necessary for effective functioning.

Examination of the complexity of the teacher's task in today's world reveals that the life space available in existing four-year teacher preparation programs is insufficient. Sending beginning teachers out into classrooms without an adequate level of preservice training raises a serious question of safety to clients. In addition, if teachers begin jobs without an adequate repertoire of teaching skills, they are likely to view their task as one of survival and to settle quickly on a narrow band of teaching behaviors that enable them to "get by."

Unfortunately, some of the competencies needed for an adequate level of preparation are not even introduced to currently enrolled preservice teachers, and others are considered only perfunctorily. Mastery of such competencies undoubtedly requires additional life space. However, time alone is not the answer, since mastery, rather than duration of exposure, is the critical factor. Clearly, there is an obvious and urgent need for extending the preparation time in those states that limit teacher preparation to 18 semester hours, including student teaching. But five years of preservice training is no more a guarantee of quality than four. Extending preparation time to permit addressing the present components in a more leisurely fashion, or simply providing further opportunities for repetitive practice of the same skills, is a simplistic solution. Instead, teacher educators addressing the issue of life space must examine anew all the elements of preservice preparation -- general studies, pre-education in the undergirding disciplines, subject specialities, and professional studies -- and assign to each the time and other resources necessary to insure competent professional performance.

Although we are urging the identification of a common body of practice for teachers, and we believe that preservice mastery of the competencies outlined in the ten clusters would represent a safe level of entry into the profession, in no sense are we equating that generic knowledge with a neatly prescribed set of standardized procedures. The professional lives in an ambiguous world, a world of work that defies standardization (Olmsted, 1977). The nature of clients, the problem, the setting, and personal excellence all impinge on the task of the educator. Preservice preparation experiences necessarily must emphasize generic kinds of knowledge and skills, providing a foundation for successful teaching in specific settings to serve particular student needs.

Such an approach neither aims at standardized answers to particular teaching/learning problems nor is satisfied with dealing generally or vaguely with teaching problems that are rooted in real situations. Instead, an emphasis on generic knowledge recognizes the broad range of specific teaching problems encountered in a particular community, school, or classroom, and attempts to identify common threads or principles upon which the professional educator can design truly individualized educational experiences for students. In order to properly address life space needs and to provide teaching candidates with the necessary generic competencies, attention must be given to the retooling and extension of preservice teacher preparation programs.

An Examination of the Professional Interactions Cluster

The Challenge paper presents a need for the reexamination of teacher preparation in ten competency clusters which are judged essential for all teachers. This paper outlines one of the essential role changes for educators implied by Public Law 94-142: becoming a member of a diagnostic/prescriptive team. Here, we present an expansion of some of the ways in which teacher education institutions might help trainees to develop the competencies assigned to this cluster. The discussion illustrates both the nature of the life space problem and the exciting opportunities which its reexamination creates.

The professional interactions cluster suggests that teachers should be able to function as members of teams, with all members sharing responsibility for the child's education. This concept requires a shift from the isolated mode of operation used by most teachers to a cooperative mode with interactions between and among teachers, parents, and other professionals. In these interactions, teachers will need to be able to plan, consult, collaborate, and negotiate with others.

Professional interactions require participants to be able to express their ideas in simple, direct language rather than in jargon specific to their roles. They need to be able to listen to opposing viewpoints without regarding these expressed differences as attacks on their behavior or values. They need to view one another as specialists in limited aspects of a problem so that all are equals, rather than some experts and other "laypersons" (i.e., parents know best how their children developed and how they react in the home environment; classroom teachers are the specialists on behavior in the classroom; psychologists are the experts on the interpretation of tests, etc.).

A key implication emerges for teacher preparation programs: They must themselves serve as models for the concepts of instructional teams and professional interactions. Instead of being content only with didactic approaches to initial teacher preparation, teacher education programs must provide interactional experiences and opportunities for modeling.

In the following subsections, the components of the professional interactions cluster are discussed and examples are given of how these components can be presented and evaluated in teacher education programs. Provisions for traditional knowledge acquisition, modeling techniques, and opportunities for active student involvement are described. These examples are meant only as illustrations and should not be construed as specific requirements for mastery of the competencies delineated.

Planning. Teachers need to be able to engage in planning with others. Planning should focus on the development, implementation, evaluation, and revision of the individual student's instructional program, and the relationship of that program to the general curriculum and the post-school demands placed on the student by society. Course work in planning would follow basic course work in assessment, instructional objectives, programming, and evaluation -- all of which are included in the clusters on curriculum (scope and sequence) and the basic skills (particularly those described as survival skills).

Laboratory experiences could include guided observation and analysis of planning conferences in which individual programs are developed. They should include observation of group planning sessions for different types of exceptional learners. Interdisciplinary assessment and diagnostic clinics would be excellent sites for practicum experience in such observation. Students would be able to observe multi-faceted diagnostic reports, cross-disciplinary clinical staffings, and professional conferences.

During the practicum, students could begin to participate in group planning sessions. They might, for example, make classroom observations on the effectiveness of a child's Individualized Educational Program (IEP) and present the data they had collected as evidence of whether specific objectives had been met. This activity would enable trainees to participate as valued peers while simultaneously learning to solicit and reinforce the contributions of colleagues.

Consulting. Teachers will need to be able to serve as consultants to co-workers in cases in which special expertise is needed. Subject-matter specialists need to be consultants on the cirriculum in their academic field; age-level teacher specialists, such as kindergarten teachers, need to be consultants on expected behaviors by developmental stages, and so on. Development of the consulting component of the interactions cluster will require basic course work in oral and written expression. In addition, course work in standard medical, psychological, and educational terminology, along with psychology courses that include group discussion techniques, values clarification, and non-directive counseling techniques, should be provided. Each teacher will need to learn to be receptive to suggestions of consultants and to realize that lack of knowledge is not indicative of failure.

It would be important to include the modeling of positive reinforcement behaviors and of interactions with other professionals in the preservice experiences. The trainee should be able to observe many models of interactions in which other professionals both share expertise and solicit it. It will be especially important for special education teachers to develop skills in consultation because serving as resource persons will be a major part of their role. In their laboratory activities, students should observe experienced teachers engaging in real and/or mediated conferences with fellow teachers, principals, parents, and pupils. Students should view both good and bad models of practice, and should engage in guided discussions designed to help them to become more aware of constructive conferring strategies.

Colleges could provide special education majors with a practicum experience in consultation in their multiple-section introductory course on exceptional individuals. Assuming that the course was required for all education majors, it could be developed by a cross-departmental team and taught by faculty members from several departments. The special education majors would serve as teacher aides to regular faculty members teaching the course, by demonstrating special education techniques (e.g., how to lift and transfer orthopedically handicapped children; how to operate a hearing aid). This experience would provide a preservice practicum in consultation for special education majors and, simultaneously, offer an innovative form of support for collaborating faculty.

Collaborating. Teachers will need to know how to collaborate with colleagues who share responsibility for an individual student's program. The reading teacher, for example, will need to select instructional materials that complement and reinforce the skills presented by the classroom teacher. Course work in this area would overlap with that in the clusters on individualizing instruction, curriculum design, and basic skills, as well as with other components of the interactions cluster.

In developing this skill, teachers in training will need to observe collaborative efforts (grade-level planning, team teaching) modeled by experienced teachers and college faculty members. College courses which can be developed and taught by cross-departmental teams could provide excellent models of collaboration. For example, suppose students in Social Work, Education, and Rehabilitation Counseling all needed a course in the medical aspects of disability. All three departments might develop one course jointly, cross-listing it under all three areas. Each department would assign a faculty member to the instructional team. Collaborating faculty members could interrelate the lectures and encourage joint student projects. They also could help students in each specialty to understand how a particular subskill relates to a more generic treatment of a child's problem.

Practica should include short-term experiences in which trainees team teach or jointly implement instructional and/or management plans for real children in supervised field-based settings. Evaluation of this experience should be based on the children's mastery of a skill or objective on which trainees collaborated to instruct them.

Experience in collaboration might be provided to students working in organized "teams" which are composed of prospective teachers who represent different stages or years in the preparation program. For example, a team might be composed of a beginning teacher education student at the sophomore level whose field experience was largely focused on observation and routine classroom support duties; a more advanced student capable of assuming individual tutorial or practice session direction; and an advanced student from general or special education who was involved in student teaching.

The opportunity for the advanced student to assume responsibility for some direction and coordination of his or her less-experienced colleagues could provide a group experience that is presently lacking in most preparation programs. Similarly, both the advanced and other students at different stages of professional preparation could benefit from the obligation to relate their planning and implementation efforts to those of their colleagues. Further, provisions for the involvement of parent volunteers in the same instructional training teams could both foster parents' understanding of the objectives of the school and develop prospective teachers' abilities to relate to parents and enlist their aid in facilitating the learning experiences of their children.

Negotiating. Teachers need to know how to negotiate with others when their goals, values, philosophies, or priorities differ. They need to learn how to negotiate productively without being rigid or defensive. This skill would require basic course work that includes mastery of the literature on resolving conflicts and achieving consensus, and would follow demonstrations of related competencies in conferring, consulting, and planning.

Modeling, laboratory, and practicum experiences should include guided observations of experienced teachers negotiating with various groups and individuals. Students then should participate in negotiations of many different types that would involve them in the resolution of various problems and differences.

Evaluation. The assessment of a student's mastery of the skills of planning, consulting, collaborating, and negotiating will take place at various levels. At the didactic level, the assessment of knowledge can be determined by standard testing procedures. At the practicum level, evaluation will involve observation of a trainee's participation and assessment of contributions. The quality of an interaction, perhaps, can be measured best by its result: Consensus is reached but no participants either "win" or "lose," and, in the judgment of an independent observer, the welfare of children takes precedence over all else.

Summary: magnitude of the life space issue. The life space issue is not a simple question of adding a predetermined span of time to the teacher preparation program. It is, instead, a problem of providing enough preservice time and other resources for mastery of the essential skills at a safe level for beginning practice. The preceding examples illustrate the magnitude of the life space requirements for even one of the suggested competency clusters.

Nor is the addition of the skills in the other clusters a one dimensional arithmetic problem; beyond mastery of each is a higher level of performance resulting from the synthesis of all clusters. In the past, higher education curricula have been disposed to present content in isolated bits and pieces, leaving to the individual student the difficult task of making the connections. While meaning obviously will continue to be determined by each learner, planners of the new program can do much to facilitate the perception of linkages and interrelations. If we are to expect such integration of effort and program components in our elementary and secondary schools, it is essential that we provide a model of program synthesis in the preparation of prospective teachers. Our present life space is wholly inadequate for the task.

The Power of an Ideal

Perhaps one of the most significant implications of Public Law 94-142 for teacher education is that it is a stimulus for the establishment of new goals for schools, colleges, and departments of education. Teacher educators have known that teaching and learning could and should be better, but we have devoted little time to reflecting upon the things which we would like to have in our profession and in American education. Aspirations have a way of conditioning reality, however, and too often lack of vision becomes a major force in perpetuating the problems we confront. Speaking of the power of an ideal, John Dewey long ago reminded us that just as the aims and ideals which are generated through imagination change as they are applied to existent conditions, so the interaction between the ideal and the real serves to modify existent conditions. If this assertion is true, the aspirations stirred by our wish to respond positively to the challenge of Public Law 94-142 in fact can modify the reality in which we function. Teacher education must help teachers in preparation to be in contact with reality, but it must help them also to realize what could be. Beginning teachers must be able to survive in the classroom as it is, but if education is to improve -- and it must -- they also must have a vision of its potential and the skills to alter its course.

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THE CHALLENGE OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142
TO THE STRUCTURES OF SCHOOLING

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The Problem

Educators in the United States, for the most part, appear to be unaware of the changes implied for the processes of education in two legal instruments executed almost 20 years apart, one by the Supreme Court and the other by the Congress. The first, of course, is the desegregation ruling that mandated an equal, unsegreated education for children of all races and nationalities; the second is Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, that entitles all handicapped children and youth aged three to 21 to a free public education in the least restrictive environment.

The major focus of the papers in this volume, and properly so, is on developing appropriate responses by teacher preparatory institutions to the demands these laws make on the public schools of the nation. In this chapter I consider a set of assumptions -- different from those in the Challenge paper -- and suggest a new way to think about schooling in the United States in the light of Public Law 94-142.

Assumptions. The fundamental assumption of the Challenge paper seems to be that the schools can and will make necessary changes in personnel selection, adapting to individual pupil needs, and serving the handicapped population. This assumption depends, in turn, on the anticipation that the schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) will be able to modify existing personnel preparation programs to accommodate the large number of new skills and objectives which must be acquired by preservice teachers. Further, the demands of Public Law 94-142 rest on the assumption that 2.5 million teachers and other educators already in service can, within a reasonable time, acquire the necessary skills and abilities through inservice programs.

The majority of papers in this volume place the responsibility for addressing the mandate primarily on the shoulders of teachers and teacher education institutions. Indeed, at first glance, this appears to be the only group with sufficient size, influence, and accessibility to children to adapt to the new demands. The shorthand reference to the Challenge paper and its supporting commentaries[2] might be the "teacner education solution." A good question to pose, however, is, "Is it possible and reasonable for preservice and inservice teachers to acquire new skills and clusters of competencies to meet the needs of handicapped pupils, while the other functions and structures in schooling maintain the even tenor of their ways?" I argue in this paper that the answer to this question is "No!" and that other changes in schooling will have to take place before teachers with revitalized training can reasonably expect to bring schools into compliance with the mandate.

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Historical development of a basic schooling model. The historical roots of the schools encompassed by the nation's more than 16,000 school systems go back, of course, to colonial Dame's schools, to their gradual evolution into one-room rural schools, followed by aggregations of "one rooms" into graded urban schools. Clustering classrooms together had the obvious advantage of making the comprehensive high school a viable alternative to one-room schools, enabling diversification and specialization in subject matter as early as possible after the common subjects had been mastered by the pupils (Conant, 1967). Over the years, society's growing commitment to good schools and the increasing expenditures of public tax funds have inevitably created the need for administrative and support personnel of all types. Meanwhile, little has changed in the basic responsibilities of the classroom teacher.

Three direct components combine in the schooling situation, with the expectation that subject-matter knowledge will be mastered:

1. the learners with their varying aptitudes and interests;

2. the teacher or some other agent of instruction; and

3. the materials of instruction.

The teacher's role always has been to develop a mini-system or plan of instruction in which these elements are manipulated to bring about pupil growth in desired directions. This overly simplified model of schooling continues to be the basic model, despite widely divergent curricula, new social engineering objectives of society, and new knowledge about the differences in learning aptitudes of children of all ages. This model, so heavily dependent upon the skills of the first-level practitioner, has continued to be employed despite the problems (e.g., busing, feeding, exercising, and socializing) that arise from trying to educate children equally in large groups. Administrators, supervisors, librarians, counselors, psychologists, social workers, and other specialists seem to have been added to the schools to deal with the problems created by aggregating large numbers of pupils in buildings. The primary delivery method for instruction, despite the growth of schools, still involves the teacher, the "book," and a manageable-sized class of youngsters.

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[2] The paper in this volume by Kevin Ryan is an exception to the generalization.

Teacher pressure for homogeneity in classes. While accepting the general responsibility for helping children to acquire subject matter, teachers have come to view themselves as a special interest group; they complain when administrators put too many students in their classes, when there are not enough books to go around, or when a handicapped child requires too much of the available instructional time. A major strategy in American public schools always has been to accommodate the needs of the largest number of pupils within the basic classroom model. When classroom groups became too large, teachers worked diligently to reduce the spread of individual differences by seeking the removal of retarded and sensorily handicapped pupils, as well as the unruly and, even on occasion, the gifted.

Processes such as grade acceleration and grade retention have been strongly supported by teachers in their attempts to make their classes more homogeneous in achievement and, consequently, their jobs more manageable. At the secondary level, teachers believe that course prerequisites reduce heterogeneity. Although researchers have shown for some time that reducing the heterogeneity of pupils in classes (i.e., tracking) is not an effective pedagogical strategy (Goldberg, 1966), the awareness is relatively recent that handicapped and minority children were being denied their civil rights by attempts to exclude "deviant" individuals from regular classrooms.

In our lifetime teachers have been asked by parents, administrators, school boards, state departments of education, and the general public to expand their teaching objectives from the narrowly conceived "three Rs" to include health, driver training, socialization, character development, cultural values, taste, capitalism, consumerism, addiction prevention, and a host of other worthwhile social goals. Assistance to the individual teacher for the "add-ons" has been minimal, and preservice preparation in these areas has typically been negligible.

Teaching is already too difficult. Now, the Challenge paper appears to be asking teachers and the institutions that prepare them to take a major new step toward making the generalist role of teacher even more difficult and more demanding. Teaching under the simplified model, in which a single minimally trained adult is responsible for the design, development, and implementation of an instructional system, has reached its practical limits. The job of being a teacher in the typical school environment, as we have seen, has gradually become more difficult. The new social demands laid upon professional practice by Public Law 94-142 can be predicted to precipitate a breakdown of services and many instances of teacher "burn-out" if serious attempts are not made to restructure the basic delivery system for schooling.

Anyone who has given sizable amounts of time to classroom observation is struck by the massive amounts of pedagogically off-target time spent by children, the disproportionate amount of teacher talk to pupil talk, the tremendous influx of stimuli, and the teacher's difficulty in sorting out and recording anything more than a hazy notion of each pupil's progress. Yet, it is proposed to add ten more clusters of competence onto this already inadequate classroom interaction model. In the next secion I examine where the "common body of practice" is likely to fail in carrying out the provisions of Public Law 94-142, unless we can change the way schooling is conceived, organized, and operated.

Pressure Points in Clusters of Competencies

The Challenge paper discusses quite cogently the ten competency clusters which teachers will have to acquire the achieve the goals of Public Law 94-142. However, these changes in teacher skills can be brought about only after schooling has been reconceptualized and restructured along very systematic lines: after the self-contained classroom has been replaced as the fundamental unit for delivery instruction. In the meantime, where are the cluster competencies least likely to be fulfilled, given the present dependence upon small instructional nonsystems?

Teaching basic skills. According to the Challenge papaer, all teachers should be able to teach three types of basic skills: literacy, life maintenance, and personal development. These skills will be an important new acquisition for secondary teachers of subject matter whose classes include handicapped students. However, I predict that because secondary teachers of physics, mathematics, English, social studies, and other academic subjects have such deep commitments to their subjects and to their students' achievement of normative amounts of knowledge, they will be reluctant to use their time for diagnosis, prescription, and remediation in literacy training, life maintenance, and personal development. The typical teacher in this category will be unusually reluctant to deal individually with a handicapped youngster outside of his or her subject field. In general, it is subject-matter expertise that sets high school teachers apart from other educators; it may be impossible to get their voluntary compliance for instructing handicapped students in subject matter outside their fields. It is not that academic teachers in secondary schools are against "the handicapped"; while supporting the schools' and society's efforts to educate handicapped children, they just do not want to do the job in their classrooms. It may be that the earliest solutions to the problem in high schools will be the use of the resource room model for basic skills teaching.

At the college or preservice preparation level, the counterpart of the secondary subject teacher is the liberal arts and sciences professor. In some ways, this professor is a model for the academic secondary teacher. The problem of changing the basic values of this group of educators seems difficult indeed. Their values, attitudes, and preferences often carry as much or more weight than those of teacher educators in the professional field.

In the school itself, the problem of teaching literacy, life maintenance, and personal development to handicapped learners in regular classrooms is made difficult by the absence of satisfactory curricular materials for self-instruction or isolated study. When teachers do not know a subject well, they frequently turn to self-study curricular materials. Unfortunately, in the case of basic skills, too few self-study items are available.

Professional interactions. To meet the mandate, teachers will have to be prepared to increase greatly the extent to which they practice effective consultation and other forms of professional communication. The development of an IEP for every handicapped child clearly depends on negotiation, collaboration, conferring, interviewing, and other forms of professional communication.[3] Teachers, because of the limited scope of their current preparation, are not well equipped to engage in these activities. They have been uncomfortable with parents ever since sizable numbers became articulate college graduates and professionals. Except at the level of the specialist degree, teacher education does little to prepare teachers for child advocacy or for the kind of collaboration which is implied by IEP development and implementation. The classroom model of instructional behavior that is characteristic of most schools obviously does not provide time for teachers to engage in interviewing their peers, consulting with experts, conferring with parents, referring to specialists, and generally attending to the duties that result in a high quality IEP. Preparation for these roles is not necessarily complex at the preservice and inservice levels, but the training may be to no avail unless teachers' attitudes about themselves and their relationships with others in the educational enterprise become more aggressive and more team oriented. Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash (1976) have argued vigorously for this point under the rubric of increasing the professionalism of teachers.

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[3] See paper by Dean Denemark and his associates for an excellent discussion of the types of interactions teachers are required to handle in their professional roles.

The model of the individual self-contained classroom as the predominant delivery system for schooling has had the particular advantage of conferring job freedom upon practitioners. Teachers usually have felt that they were entitled to close the classroom door and engage in instruction. The mores of teaching held that it was nobody's business what pedagogical processes were used by teachers to reach the goals of the school. Researchers on systematic classroom observation projects report that these attitudes are breaking down somewhat. However, it is not clear whether all teachers can entrust the responsibility for children's learning to a team rather than assuming it themselves (Medley & Mitzel, 1963).

Individualized teaching. A third pressure point in implementing Public Law 94-142 is the competency cluster that highlights the need for individualized teaching by all teachers. Given the typical pattern of schooling with its excessive dependence on the skills and energy of one classroom teacher, this requirement represents a change in the preparation of teachers. When children in a classroom are handicapped and IEPs are required, teachers will have to exercise complex skills of diagnosis and prescription. By diagnosis I mean the assessment of an individual student's strengths and weaknesses in achievement and learning potential, together with estimates of the probable causes of the conditions.

To be able to diagnose in an educational sense depends in turn upon finely honed knowledge of both standardized and teacher-made tests, as well as the general sequence of a common school curriculum. Many of the concepts required for an accurate interpretation of test findings on an individual child are statistically complex and varied, depending upon the test development data. Teachers who have had no more than an undergraduate introductory course in "tests and measurements" are not well enough equipped to do minimal educational diagnosis and prescription.

In addition to having the clinical assessment skills that are inherent in test interpretation, teachers need to know a great deal more about child development and the developmental sequencing of instruction. For example, instructing a child in long division without determining his or her skill levels in multiplication, addition, and subtraction is not good instructional management.[4]

The Challenge paper correctly points to the need for college professors who train teachers to provide good models of individualized instruction. The same recommendation also cautions us on the importance of student teaching placement. In student teaching, the cooperating teacher should provide an individualized teaching model for the student teacher to emulate.

Thus, there are several pressure points in the "teacher education solution" to the educational problem posed by Public Law 94-142. In summary, the next decade we will find it extremely difficult: (a) to encourage teachers to function as assertive equal members of professional educator teams, (b) to require high school subject-matter specialists to provide direct instruction in the basic skills to the handicapped, and (c) to establish functional competencies for all teachers in individualized teaching, diagnosis and prescription, and test development and interpretation.

Alternatives to a "Teacher Education Solution"

Is the self-contained classroom so ingrained in our social fabric that it cannot be changed or modified? Is the classroom unit the only cost-effective structure for carrying out instruction? It is quite obvious that Public Law 94-142 makes a new major demand upon the educational enterprise, but that demand cannot be met by merely upgrading the quality and complexity of the services performed by the major component of the educational work force without changing anything else about schooling.

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[4] See the first competency cluster in the Challenge paper.

Viewed from the perspective of history, the role of the teacher in traditional schooling has evolved from the structure of schooling around the physical aspect of the classroom. Changing the role of the regular classroom teacher or generalist, as advocated here, would obviously require the rethinking and redesign of the structure of schooling. Considered as a system, the classroom unit is too small for efficient, effective work production. It can be argued that an elementary school with 25 pupils and 25 teachers in 25 different classrooms is not one system but 25 different subsystems coexisting in approximately the same "life space." Administrative, psychological, remedial, and library services have been grafted on and used in varying amounts to support teaching activities.

One consequence of the "too small" operating unit in the school seems to be eclecticism and incoherence. I have argued elsewhere (Mitzel, 1977) that these characteristics make it impossible to develop and test a theory of schooling and to determine badly needed cause-effect relations before we can improve schooling. Another consequence of the small size of the school's operating unit, which is highlighted by the demands of Public Law 94-142, is the lack of specialization in instructional skills in the typical classroom. If you take away subject-matter preparation at the elementary and high school levels, the teacher's remaining behavior is that of generalist. Teachers know a little about optimizing the conditions for learning, curricular sequence, grouping, testing, diagnosing, and prescribing.

However, Public Law 94-142 will demand much higher degrees of specialization in adapting to the needs of the handicapped. [This point seems to be especially true if about one out of every eight youngsters is mildly to severely handicapped.] Shall we retain the classroom as the major operating unit and attempt to raise the level of preparation for all classroom teachers significantly? Or shall we redefine the school as the operating unit and seek specialization among smaller numbers of school personnel? Is it time to try to bring the advantages of "systems" thinking into schools for instructional purposes and to minimize the disadvantages that might be described as impersonal and mechanistic values?

Although there is a strong distruct of medical analogies, educators should ponder what has been happening to systems of primary health care delivery in the United States since 1950. One notices immediately the near disappearance of the old style family doctor or general practitioner among physicians. Even the remaining small number of G.P.s depends heavily upon laboratory tests, x-rays, and group practice models. G.P.s do not often make house calls and they are quick to refer a patient to a specialist or clinic for more extensive and thorough diagnosis. As a consequence, primary health care is much more expensive, even when adjusted for inflation, than it was when general practitioners were themselves carrying out the majority of the functions. Almost no one doubts that the major shift toward specialization among physicians has resulted in better health care, however. There was and continues to be a nostalgia for the former relationship between the family doctor or G.P. and the patient, but it must be obvious that the country cannot have quality health care if it is heavily dependent on services provided only by generalists.

In education, we are still living with romantic notions about the value of the child's relationship to one teacher. It appears to me that we will be no more successful in improving education for handicapped (or non-handicapped) pupils than professional medicine was in improving health care until it developed specialization of personnel and sophisticated systems of delivery.

At the preservice level of teacher training, the new requirements to meet the mandate of Public Law 94-142 fully may demand as much as two additional academic years of training beyond the traditional B.A. The increased preparation of teachers inevitably will mean higher personnel costs for schools. Will it be cheaper and more effective in the long run to develop instructional systems in schools that depend upon differential staffing, specialization of personnel functions, and instructional technology?

What are some of the dimensions of change that might accompany the adaptation of a systematic approach to schooling? First, I would expect schools, both elementary and secondary, to be smaller -- on the average, to accommodate no more than 400 pupils. The upper limit should be such that every staff person is acquainted with every child. This criterion is similar to the schooling values sought by the "school-within-a-school" movement. It also tends to be more characteristic of British schools than of American schools.

Second, the staff would be specialized around clusters of differentiated instructional functions instead of around narrow subject fields. Art and music education might be an exception because of the talent requirements. Instructional functions would include cognitive diagnosis and prescription for individual pupils, information recording and retrieval, selection and maintenance of curricula, learning support for flexible large and small groups, and parent and community liaison. Of course, administrative personnel would be responsible for non-instructional functions.

One of the goals of new legislation for the handicapped is to increase the employment of handicapped persons in schools in the teaching and administrative ranks. Staff differentiation in schools' instructional programs with hierarchical levels of service certainly increases the opportunity for the employment of physically handicapped persons. Classroom teaching is a physically demanding job, and administrators have been reluctant to hire handicapped persons for this role. If, for example, a role were created in schools for a diagnostic-perscriptive specialist, it is likely that many qualified handicapped persons would be able to function effectively in it.

Work patterns for differentiated staff could be organized so that direct interactions with children were balanced by desk work and conferral with colleagues in the system. Parenthetically, we can see in the Challenge and reaction papers how the implementation of Public Law 94-142 will demand teacher time for negotiation, referral, consultation, and other activities that withdraw them from direct daily supervision of pupils.

Third, pupils would spend much more time in self-paced study with high quality materials. They also would be grouped for instruction into somewhat larger units to reach certain objectives.

Fourth, the management structure for school personnel would be more hierarchical; higher salaries and prestige would be associated with different levels of experience and preparation. Presently, the typical elementary school or subject department of a large high school has a flat personnel structure -- many semi-independent workers with a single head. I envision the systems-oriented school as having up to five career levels, beginning with instructional aide. In a systems structure for schooling, so-called supplementary services, such as those provided by resource room teachers (special educators), psychologists, counselors, and other specialists, all would be integrated into the functional units delivering instruction.

At the moment there seems to be no other way to conform to the law but to begin the job by strengthening teacher preparation at both the preservice and inservice levels. However, I hope a few wise and venturesome schools will look beyond the letter of the law and will experiment with instructional systems that are based on staff differentiation and specialization. Who knows but that Public Law 94-142 may become the stimulus for a great leap forward in schooling?

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MAINSTREAMING AND TEACHER EDUCATION: THE LAST STRAW

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According to an old saying, a camel is the product of a committee that set out to make a horse. I see an uncomfortable parallel between teacher education and the camel. Teacher education programs, quite literally, are brought into being by committees, kept in existence by committees, and ruled by committees. Rarely, if ever, is a teacher education program the creature of one mind with a clear vision of what it takes to transform a college student of average abilities into a skillful practitioner. Instead, these creatures of committees are humpy and lumpy, made so by many people with many different views about the human condition, learning, teaching, and the characteristics of skillful teachers. In effect, a teacher education program is a compromise of these many views and, sometimes, of many political factors.

A major problem in developing a teacher education program is that we do not have a set of blueprints to follow. There is no clear body of knowledge to dictate how we should teach, develop, or shape a good teacher. But, even if we did have a solid knowledge base -- a body of warranted knowledge to use as the basis for training -- teacher education still would have problems.

The education of teachers is currently conducted amid a number of very limiting constraints:

1. Time must be considered first. The teacher educator has at his or her disposal the time allotted to a handful of courses and student teaching. For a secondary school teacher, professional training amounts to 80 percent of one academic year; for an elementary school teacher, it is approximately 1.5 years.

2. The teacher educator must train future teachers in relative isolation from children and practicing teachers. University campuses are psychologically and often physically at a great distance from elementary and secondary schools.

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3. Teacher educators must train teachers within the constraints of very tight budgets. The amount of money allocated by the university or college to teacher education is usually the lowest allocated to any major; it is several times less than the amount allocated to a premedical or physics major. This low budget figure translates into a high faculty-student ratio; few funds for laboratory training; low use of technology, such as videotapes and other advanced media; and limited opportunity to take students to the field or bring the field to the students.

4. On the one hand, the act of teaching and managing the learning of 30 children is immensely complex and demanding. On the other hand, teachers are, for the most part, average in ability. Although there is little research or, for that matter, discussion on the mismatch between task and talent, the candidates for training as teachers may be one of the fundamental constraints in the field.

The Onion-Skin Curriculum

Given these constraints on teacher education, teacher educators should build their training curricula with great care. First selecting those theories, principles, values, skills, and strategies which are most important or have the most power, they should then insure that students have mastered them. It is a rare program that reflects such careful selection. As stated previously, the curriculum often represents an intellectual and political compromise.

There is another problem, however. Teacher education is vulnerable to all sorts of ideas and movements. To overstate the case, when problems involving young people or the larger society begin to attract a certain level of attention, the schools are called upon to solve the problems. Let me illustrate.

Our major cities begin to decay and there is social unrest; teacher education emphasizes urban education.

A new awareness of economic inequalities and educational opportunities appears among various racial and ethnic groups; teacher education begins to emphasize multicultural education.

Signs of civic disharmony and inter-group hostilities become widespread and people identify a gap between generations; teacher education takes on a new curricular emphasis -- human relations training.

Corruption in high places and a growing loss of respect for the law mount; schools become the focus of litigation and a few teachers are found liable for certain actions. Teacher education adds something else to its curriculum -- law-related education.

An uproar swells accusing college students of reading at an elementary school level; employers complain that their workers cannot read simple instructions. Teacher education stresses that every teacher is a teacher of reading and all must stress literacy in their subject fields.

We are shocked by immorality in high places and the risk of delinquency and vandalism; teacher education emphasizes moral values.

Society recognizes that sexual stereotypes limit the choices available to individuals and, therefore, deny them opportunities in and access to certain jobs and experiences. Teacher education responds by showing students how to eliminate sexism in schools.

Individuals come to the conclusion that schools are too remote from the world of work; they assert that children are illiterate about vocational possibilities and devoid of marketplace skills. Teacher education emphasizes career education.

A high incidence in the use of certain illegal drugs is found in the society with a large proportion of the users among school-age children, and the consumption of alcohol among children increases. Teacher education takes on first drug and then alcohol education.

Here, then, are some of the problems in the larger society which teacher education and the schools have been asked either to solve or to work toward solving. All of these problems are important and worthy causes, and challenge a prospective teacher's skill. As each new emphasis is shoe-horned into an already crowded curriculum, teacher educators are rarely given the training, instructional materials, extracurricular time, or other resources to develop effective modules. Usually, the important new mission is stretched out to form a thin veneer of curricular content and is added to the teacher education program like another layer of onion skin.

Enter Mainstreaming

Thus, in broad strokes, this is the situation into which the new contender for a place in teacher education enters with trumpets of high purpose and flourishes of great urgency. Let me state quickly that there is no educational or social achievement of the last two decades which I find more inspiring or in which, I believe, educators can take more pride than the efforts to improve the education of mentally, sensorily, and physically handicapped children. It is true that there is much work still to be done, but the accomplishments to date are stirring.

Nevertheless, I must admit that what I have read and heard about mainstreaming leaves me with some doubts. I do not question the principle of educating people in the least restrictive environment or the value of an individually prescribed learning contract. I find these and the other ideas which have been suggested in response to Public Law 94-142 very impressive. What I doubt is our capacity to accomplish them. What I doubt is our capacity to translate a beautiful set of ideas into an operating set of realities. What I doubt is, given the many constraints on teacher education, whether we can do it.

For instance, here are two of my concerns: First, how sure are we that we can train the average -- I stress average -- teacher in the limited time available to handle the responsibilities imposed by mainstreaming? Again, I am sure that many gifted preservice teachers can learn all that we currently have to offer them, as well as the mainstreaming skills and strategies. However, I am concerned about the remaining 75-80 percent of students. Do they possess the necessary talent, energy, and commitment? Second, what is the evidence that mainstreaming handicapped children is a good idea? What evidence is there that teachers can do it and, further, that they can provide a better learning situation for the "mainstreamed" children without causing the other children to make significant sacrifices? I want to be shown evidence.

The Challenge paper directs our attention to ten competency clusters. Although I might wish to restructure various cluster items into different configurations, or to quibble over this component or that, by and large I find the clusters inclusive and stimulating. They could serve as an organizing set of skills and role behaviors to direct the work of teacher educators. Indeed, if teachers left preservice training with these abilities, they would qualitatively revolutionize American education. However, there is a structural problem: Preservice training is embedded in and typically limited to the undergraduate years. As it exists, the professional training of a teacher is constantly at odds with the demands of a liberal arts education.

Given the current framework of teacher education, can we implement these competencies and, thereby, effectively train teachers for mainstreaming? In other words, can we add all the proposed elements and more to the already crowded, uneven, grotesquely structured curriculum with any assurance that the teachers leaving our programs will be able to do the job?

It is probably obvious from the tone of this paper that I see mainstreaming as possibly the straw that will break the camel's back, which may actually be a great service to teacher education. It may finally prove to us all that we cannot educate prospective teachers within the current constraints imposed on us. Finally, it may give us the means to blast teacher education out of the smothering domination of the undergraduate program.

A New Structure for Teacher Education

In the rest of this paper, I sketch the structure which, I believe, we ought to move toward if we wish to develop what I consider to be a serious, professional teacher education program. Basic to this proposed program is the belief that unless we move to a new structure for teacher education, we will not only fail to prepare teachers for the current realities of the American classroom, but we will fail to prepare them adequately for the additional challenges presented by mainstreaming.

I believe that teacher education should be conducted within the context of a five-year, combined B. A. and M. A. and M. Ed. program of study and training. After two years of general education and liberal studies, the prospective teacher, now a junior, should begin his or her program of training. That program, the specifics of which go beyond the scope of this paper, should be a reconceptualization, a new synthesis, of traditional teacher education and many of the innovative practices that have evolved over the last few years. The theoretical content should be rewoven with clinical and field-based components.

Knowledge, skills, and strategies need to be taught in sequence, giving the prospective teacher more intellectual and behavioral control over the many facets of the teacher's role. A carefully sequenced array of professional laboratory experiences should stretch from student-aide experiences through classroom observation activities, simulated training, tutoring assignments, and micro-teaching experiences, and culminate with student teaching. The prospective teacher should carry out these laboratory experiences in a variety of teaching settings (e.g., middle-class schools, schools serving poor populations, and elementary, middle, and high schools).

Because much of the new program will focus on training and field-based experience, we also need to rediscover and reassert the place of knowledge and theory in the education of teachers. Thus far, we have done a poor job of making operational the adage that nothing is quite so practical as a good theory.

A number of elements are needed to make this five-year program work. One is a change in the funding formula for teacher education. The state boards of higher education typically reimburse the universities on a formula basis with various majors getting different levels of reimbursement. Teacher education should be reimbursed at a higher level to enable institutions to provide more clinical training. The laboratory nature of teacher education has rarely been recognized by the funders.

We should acknowledge that not all of the 1,360 institutions training teachers are capable of mounting a five-year program. In many of these institutions, the move should be made toward pre-education programs that would be qualitatively comparable to and would serve the same purpose as pre-law or pre-medicine programs. The graduates of these pre-education programs would then transfer into any of the approximately 200 institutions offering the fifth year of professional training. While this plan would require coordination among institutions on curricular matters, a clear precedent for such coordination exists in other professions.

More important and more difficult, however, is the formidable intellectual task of bringing about a new synthesis based on the ten clusters of teacher education competencies. Not only will the new content of teacher education need to be melded with the new form, but the curriculum must be structured to accommodate the undergraduate-graduate split.

Our five-year training program would rely heavily on cooperation with the field. Program advisory councils should be established, made up primarily of teacher educators and practicing teachers and administrators. We should use the expansion of field experiences to bring about a long-overdue move in teacher education: the serious involvement of practicing elementary and secondary school professionals in the curricular decision making of teacher education.

The current practice in teacher education is to provide minimal training for the teacher which will be generalized to a variety of classroom settings. When the new teacher arrives at a particular school with a specific set of characteristics, training often breaks down. We are all familiar with the kinds of personal and professional traumas which are experienced by first-year teachers. While learning to survive, they may learn a good deal of questionable practice.

Therefore, an important aspect of this new plan for teacher education is the movement of graduates from the five-year program to special, "initiation schools." These schools would be specifically designated as places where beginners can make the transition from student of teaching to skilled teacher. An individual initiation school would have a dual role: (a) to provide as good an education as is possible to the youth attending that school; and (b) to introduce new teachers carefully into the full complexity of the teacher's role. Key to the initiation school would be a staff of master teachers who are trained to be "school-based teacher educators." They would be the role models, advisors, and professional colleagues of our new teachers. The new teacher would have a substantial instructional role in the initiation school. The major difference is that he or she also would have a support system. Each teacher would spend two years in these special schools. At the end of that time he or she would be reviewed quite carefully by a committee of master teachers for full and permanent certification as "teacher."

Conclusion

An exalted view of the human condition seems characteristic of educators. We are interested not only in what people are but in what they can become. As a result, however, we have a tendency to underestimate the difficulty of bringing about behavioral change. For example, we expect a preservice student to translate an idea into action. We expect the student to adapt learned procedures to very different situations. Unfortunately, we have taken on too many missions with too few resources and too many constraints. If the teacher education community is to take on this newest and most admirable mission, I urge that we make this the occasion to kill the poor camel. We should make this the occasion for creating a sturdy strong workhorse that will enable us to bring about the kinds of results to which we are all dedicated.

REACTION: TOWARD AN ENLARGEMENT OF GENERAL PRINCIPLES

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> *. . . before one intrudes into the lives and settings of others one had better know the soundness of one's own ways of looking and thinking.*
>
> *Sarason (1971, p. 236)*

As a prelude, some personal information is required here. I am, by function, title, and setting, a teacher educator. I am also black. This latter condition necessitates an additional criterion for response. There is a duality in the challenge, but it is not unfamiliar to many of us in similar circumstances.

It is important, therefore, to speak directly about the condition of blackness. I am not a product of education in any predominantly black learning environment, higher education or otherwise. My livelihood is not earned -- nor is my profession practiced -- in or on behalf of an historically or predominantly black institution. Thus, this paper does not focus on the concerns and issues that reverberate around the educational mission and plight of such institutions. Other, far closer voices can be heard.

Yet, the condition of blackness in this society is not demarcated along geographic, age-related, or setting-specific lines. The condition is of particular relevance to any discussion of those children who are, or who are labeled to be, handicapped.

Although I am in general agreement with the goals of the Challenge paper, my focus is on extending some issues which may be implied but are not prominent in the paper. Threaded throughout my comments on the major elements of the Challenge paper are two critical background themes: the societal/cultural framework, and the implications for minority groups. They are woven, inexorably, into any consideration of the moral, legislative, and professional imperatives affecting the education of all children.

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The Challenge of the Mandate

There can be no question about the power and potential for change in American public education that is implied in the legislation affirming equal educational opportunity for all handicapped children. New policies and procedures emanate from Public Law 94-142 to the education of all children.

Not since the historic Supreme Court decision of 1954, Brown vs. The Board of Education, has there been such a significant commitment to social and legal change, to the principles of equality of education and equal protection of the laws. Twenty-five years have elapsed. That stirring mandate is still to be fully realized. The recent legislation assuring the educational and civil rights of handicapped persons will, undoubtedly, face similar obstacles to implementation. Among these, as stated in the Challenge paper, are the capacities of educational personnel to meet the demands of a "new delivery system," and the kind and level of preparation of educational personnel by colleges and universities.

An unstated parallel of questions about implementation is the degree to which the culture of the community, including that of the school, is compatible with the goals and inherent values promulgated through legislation or court decisions.

In 1954, the Court discussed the crucial role of education in the society of that time. It stated that education "is perhaps the most important function of state and local governments" and "is a principal instrument in awakening the child to cultural values, in preparing him for later professional training, and in helping him to adjust normally to his environment" (Hill & Greenberg, 1955, p. 120).

We must reexamine this function of schooling as it has been applied to the handicapped in order to effect change beyond the enactment of legislation and court orders. Does education, like other social institutions, exist mainly to provide "a system for the delivery of services to society and the personnel to perform the services"? Or does it have a more profound purpose and role in our society? Spring (1973) credited the late nineteenth century sociologist Edward Ross with being the first to state explicitly the role of education as a primary instrument for social control. The process of schooling was emphasized over curricular content as the key to preparing the individual for society. Civilization, Ross argued, was reaching an understanding of the effectiveness of education for social control: "To collect little plastic lumps of human dough from private households and shape them on the social kneading board," wrote Ross, "exhibits a faith in the power of suggestion, which few people ever attain" (Ross, 1906, p. 168).

The isolation of children and adults with handicapping conditions overlaps the isolation of racial and ethnic minorities. To understand it, we must also reexamine what Spring (1973) called "the sorting process" -- the differentiation of pupils' behavior "so that their educational training prepares them for a particular social slot" (p. 34).

In a discussion of desegregation and mainstreaming, Oden (1976) cited the disproportionate number of minority children occupying special education classrooms "who have no business being there":

> To what extent are children miscalssified when the true nature of their mislabeling is the fault of the secondary group, i.e., the school? The educational institution is at fault because it preaches certain platitudes of moral, ethical, and human values on the one hand, yet its policies and practices are segregation and isolation on the basis of racial, physical, and ethnic differences. In effect the secondary group through the use of special education practices blatant racism. (p. 58)

Data abound to establish this over-representation of black, Mexican-American, and Spanish-surnamed children in special classes. In New York City alone, approximately 30 percent of its Puerto Rican children were enrolled in special education classes in 1976 (Report on the extent of student participation in the Aspira Consent Decree Program, 1976).

As teacher preparation is redeveloped, the professional teacher, in addition to having the capacity to manage the "processes" of individual learning, also must have knowledge, wisdom, and capacity to view each learner not only in terms of defined social needs and roles but, also, as having intrinsic human worth.

To paraphrase Roubinek (1978), since we are the institution, instead of asking whether the educational institution is ready for change, we must ask whether we are ready.

Professionalization: A Common Body of Practice?

Clearly, "teaching" is not yet an established profession as defined by the characterizations of other professions. The absence of a "professional culture" among teachers, as described by Howsam and his associates (1976), is undeniable.

Simultaneous with efforts to reach consensus on the development of appropriate teaching skills which all teachers should master, we must assure that society views the teacher as a professional engaged in indispensable service to citizens, entrusted with the educational health of students, and demonstrating both competence and commitment to learners.

The following excerpt is not to be interpreted as a plea for the inclusion of teachers in the list of exemptions but merely to illustrate their prevailing societal position in contrast to other professionals:

> Section 512 - Exemptions (From Jury duty)
>
> #3. An attorney regularly engaged in the practice of law as a means of livelihood. [Understandable!]
>
> #2. A licensed physician, dentist, pharmacist, optometrist, psychologist, podiatrist, registered nurse, practical nurse, embalmer, or a Christian Science nurse exempt from licensing by subdivision G of section sixty-nine hundred eight of the education law, regularly engaged in the practice of his profession. (article 16, New York State Judiciary Law, 1979)

It cannot be argued that from Public Law 94-142 and other legislation and court decisions there emanate added knowledge and skills related to handicapped students which are critical to the preparation of teachers for the education of the future. Because they exist, the "professional culture" needed by us all will thus be further developed.

To overlook the historic factors of our non-profession, however, and to compress the tactics of reform into the acceptance and adoption of a system (no matter how broadly conceived) which is dependent on an Individualized Education Program (IEP) is to ignore the salient factors underlying the current dilemma: the socio-economic and political antecedents.

Can a "professional culture" be established without a further analysis of the components and elements of that culture as it is influenced by the professionals themselves and the communities they serve? Who are our teachers? Why do they choose teaching as a career?

And what of the lack of a link between practice and the social needs of those whom we seek to serve? In the search, will we attain immediate and short-term objectives, ignorant of the complexities of Durham's (1957) evolving "all-embracing profession," one that would include university and college as well as school teachers?

To base an attempt at educational reform on an analogy to medical training is debatable. An obvious difference is that the majority of medical professionals, as well as others in the established professions, are self-employed; they are relatively free from external controls and policies. And they, too, are beginning to question, for their profession, the "myth of esoterica and excellence" (Holman, 1976).

It is ironic that, in stressing the call for professionalization, we are referred, on the title page of the Challenge paper, to Abraham Flexner (1910).[2] Perhaps of interest only to those of us who are concerned with the parallel issues (mainstreaming and integration) in the education of the different -- the minorities, the handicapped, the gifted -- is the fact that the Flexner Report addressed the state of medical education in America toward a greater professionalization of that discipline. Unprecedented high standards were set for medical education. In describing the condition of black medical education, Flexner did not conceive of blacks being trained at any schools other than their own. The Report is credited, in the name of professionalism, with the ultimate demise of the several black medical schools which existed at the time,[3] with the exception of Howard University Medical School and Meharry Medical College. However, there was no accompanying expansion of equality of access to the profession for minority students.

A thorough and comparative analysis of the teacher as a holder of professional status was made by Kelsall and Kelsall (1969). Their discussion of social status factors of choice in teaching as a profession and ten characteristics that mark the "professional" in the eyes of the public (e.g., length and exactitude of professional training, tasks to be performed by practitioners, familiarity/observation of those tasks, and the relation of those tasks, nature and purpose, to perceptions of *fundamental societal importance*) is of pertinence and value.

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[2] This reference to the Flexner Report on medical education was included in an earlier draft of the Challenge paper.

[3] Of the 151 American medical schools in existence in 1908-1909, which were evaluated by Flexner, 7 were for black students. By 1924, only 79 medical schools, including 2 for black students, remained open.

It is interesting to note here that in the Fall 1978 survey of American college freshmen, 42.8 percent of freshmen men in predominantly black colleges as opposed to 28.6 percent of men in all institutions rated as an objective, "considered to be essential, or very important," the influence of social values; 43.1 percent of freshmen women in predominantly black colleges, as opposed to 33.6 percent of women in all institutions, also considered this objective essential. Ratings for objectives concerned with participation in community action and the promotion of racial understanding were equally disparate between students in predominantly black institutions and all other institutions. Although student responses to education as a probable major field of study reflect the current overall directions of teacher supply and demand, the weighted national norm for students in the predominantly black colleges, with the exception of secondary education and music or art education, is higher than that of their peers in other colleges and universities (Astin, King, & Richardson, 1978). I am not suggesting that these factors are limited to any one institutional characteristic, but rather that they are critical factors for us all; some preconditions for effective and "professional" teaching can be assessed and stimulated.

It is the graduates of teacher preparation programs in predominantly black institutions of higher education who, most often, return to and remain in local communities with high percentages of black students in the school population; thus the institutions preparing them must not be overlooked as important partners in the efforts at educational reform.

The achievement of individuality of education for pupils will require the availability of multiple resources for use by the teacher. Effective use of these resources will be dependent, to a large degree, on the nature and scope of teacher preparation programs. But "professionalization" of the teaching function will also be determined by the objectives of those who enter or remain in the profession and by the expectations of the populations served.

Just as integration in and of itself was no guarantee of improved learning, of dealing successfully with educational deficiency, so *mainstreaming* will not automatically bring to handicapped pupils those attributes of optimal learning so earnestly sought. There must be a continued appeal -- a demand -- for the recognition, by the professional, of the human dignity of the child. There must be a call for an attitudinal revolution and the conscious fostering and nurturing of the concept of self -- as important for non-handicapped as for handicapped children, and for the majority as well as the minority.

The Clusters of Capabilities

The clusters of capabilities cannot be assessed fully because they are based on an assumption that the necessary financial resources of schools and systems actually exist. Undoubtedly, educational institutions would be deemed derelict if they did not provide the stipulated resources. But for teacher education to proceed in the formulation of common practices as though the realities of fiscal constraints of local systems do not exist is to perpetuate the chaotic discordance between the university-based educator and the practitioner in the local school system.

Not addressed is the need for concentrated and joint attention to the issues involved in the creation of an optimum learning environment for all children. Such an environment is and always has been dependent on attitudes, values, fiscal resources, and the adults in key decision-making positions. Is the omission caused by the limitations of a broad encompassing statement? Or is the omission, perhaps unconscious, in effect a position that denies or ignores the very specifics which typify the population to be addressed?

The clusters of capabilities, as presented, offer a provocative picture of future teacher preparation programs. But as presently developed, they are no more than a new "map" of the domains of professional competence in relation to individualized instruction. Until individualization of instruction is meant to be understood as parallel to, in the system of values, the relation of the medical or legal practitioner to the individual patient or client, no real reform will occur. And unless this relation is understood to exist across economic and racial lines, the guidelines for teacher preparation will have changed with no resultant benefit to those student populations which historically have been selectively removed: the minorities, the poor, and the handicapped. If these qualifiers are added considerations, then the clusters are of enormous importance, both discretely and in relation to one another.

I acknowledge that the scope of the Challenge paper requires global statements on the universals of capabilities/competencies toward a common professional acceptance. But so little attention is given to the issues discussed here. With the possible exception of the description of "Professional Values," there are disappointingly traditional themes of paternalism and assumptions of a monolingual and monocultural curriculum and society.

Equally disturbing are the proposed teaching capabilities referring to "Pupil and Class Management." Reliance on any single system of classroom practice ("behavior modification or contingency management") is to ignore the very basic principles of the teaching-learning process:

> Of critical importance is the assumption that teaching competence and style is tied not only to the information a teacher gets in training, but also very crucially to the mode in which the teacher experiences and internalizes the information and through which he transmutes it into continuous professional growth. This assumption leads to a model of learning which engages the student . . . in concurrent mastery of theory and responsible apprentice-training; activated feeling as well as thinking; and regards personal maturity as relevant to professional competence. (Biber & Winsor, 1967, p. 4)

Reliance on one system of practice is a paradox in a position that espouses the importance of an individualized approach for children but imposes one theoretical framework for teacher training and application.

Additionally, the benign intent of the authors notwithstanding, this "capability" proposes a new and contemporary threat for those children who have suffered most in the past from being labeled negatively exceptional. Dabney (1976) described these dangers to children who are judged by a racist value system:

> Many children who have previously been segregated in special education classrooms are not mentally retarded, nor are they suffering from neurological or other physiological pathology. Their behaviors are generally perceived as demonstrating deficits or shortcomings which derive from physical, emotional, family, or community pathologies. Seldom are the behaviors perceived as having arisen as the child struggled to cope with destructive environments or struggled to demonstrate autonomy and control. The burden

> of this struggle fails more heavily upon poor children than upon children of the middle classes and more heavily upon non-white than upon white children. (p. 109)

Radical changes in teacher preparation will be necessary to implement and enforce conversions in the codes of ethical behavior necessary to assure that the student as consumer receives fair and equitable treatment under national and state laws relating to education. This conversion cannot be accomplished without an informed and conscious examination and acknowledgement of the underlying circumstances of discrimination and segregation.

The creation of a teacher preparation program that spans the grade levels for inquiry, knowledge, and practice (allowing for specialized age and subject focus) can only enhance the capacity of educational personnel to meet the demands of a heterogeneous school population. The teacher educator can, if daring enough, seize the opportunity to break through the compartmentalization of training programs and begin anew the painful journey toward a true partnership in the design and delivery of a beneficial educational and societal function.

Teacher Preparation Revised

The conceptualization of competency clusters in the structure of teacher preparation programs offers a useful, since specific, model for institutional examination. In testing it against my own institution's current organization and curriculum, several questions are raised:

As a relatively small, specialized, graduate institution, we must rely on the "general or liberated education" acquired by students in undergraduate colleges or universities. Yet, the model requires a continuum and progression of discrete and interrelated knowledge, skills, and opportunities for clinical practice. Clearly, there are implications for the length of training of the professional teacher. Is there not also a need for more comprehensive and collaborative planning by the diverse inter- and intra-institutional levels of training and disciplines?

Should not all institutions examine the variety of teacher preparation efforts in which they are engaged? It would appear that the effectiveness of the model depends upon the extent to which teacher educators (including administrators) coordinate the strategies for reform across preservice/inservice lines, between Teacher Corps projects and state education comprehensive plans, and the like. The model holds promise.

How can teacher education programs be organized to assure adequate attention to the pluralistic nature of our society? How will they combat, consistently, the historical elements of racism and socio-economic discrimination which have plagued our educational processes?

The clusters of competency must be scrutinized closely. The omission of an explicit emphasis on the societal framework, the valuing of the learner in all his or her differences, and the dangerous possibility of look-alike teacher preparation programs committed to the production of robot managers of children in the name of "professionalism" calls for the broadest and most careful inquiry. To quote Norton (1976), "The American experience with equality has been both tortured and exhilarating" (p. 202).

The exhilaration of the present challenge is undeniable. Let us not contribute to the torture.

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POSSIBLE EFFECTS OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142 ON THE FUTURE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

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After a careful reading of the Challenge paper, it is clearly evident to me that a great deal of thought and effort has been put into a consideration of the impact of the Federal law, not only on educational practices but on the preparation of professional educational personnel as well. Further, it is clear that the advent of this major stimulus has provided an opportunity to rethink the whole area of teacher education and to place it in the context of a challenge. Since education is a discipline that is constantly in the midst of reform, the legal and substantive challenges of Public Law 94-142 do not constitute a new event. However, the Federal law and its obvious and, as yet, unknown effects will have one of the most broadly shaping and comprehensive impacts of anything since Sputnik.

In this response, I will address the three major areas incorporated in the Challenge paper: (a) Public Law 94-142, its historical significance, and its challenge to teacher education; (b) the development of the competency domains and clusters; and (c) the attempt to predict a model for teacher education that might respond to and flow from the challenge of Public Law 94-142 and its underlying substantive and attitudinal forces.

Public Law 94-142

The Education of All Handicapped Children Act was the culmination of a steady movement which had been developing since the formation of the volunteer parents' groups in Minneapolis in 1953. Thus, the historical roots of the Federal law can be found in the initial protest of parents of mentally retarded children: that equivalent educational services for their children be marshaled in the same way in which they are promised, under the Constitution, to all children of school age.

The origins of Public Law 94-142 can also be traced to the steady development of educational research that included improved, individualized instructional strategies, the formation of performance-based educational contracts, psycho-educational assessment, teaching styles, and a myriad of other educational and curricular developments. These developments emanated from an emphasis on special education for mentally retarded and other developmentally disabled children and adults. As this research became more widely known and its products more clearly effective, pressure mounted for a broader application of those research products.

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The adoption of a national network of demonstration education programs for handicapped children brought even closer to the average family and school those positive and effective activities and materials that could be brought to bear on the learning disabilities of young children. These demonstration centers created some irritation because their activities were not readily adopted by the regular system. It was often thought that these centers only exaggerated the differences between what could be done and what was being done in the regular educational settings. This "candy store" effect made the demonstration centers even more effective in developing a clamor for legislation governing the education of all handicapped children. Thus, it is not surprising that the consent decrees of the right-to-education suits included the principal elements which are found in Public Law 94-142: individual assessment, due process, performance-based education, regular evaluation, least restrictive alternative for education placements, adequate teachers, and differentiated staffing.

The professional special educator realizes that the requirements of Public Law 94-142, as they currently are interpreted, probably extend us beyond our capacity to deliver the effective educational programs which the law requires -- especially in the typical regular classroom. This situation is partly at the base of the fact that Public Law 94-142 is currently overemphasizing adminstrative requirements and under-emphasizing educational content and aspects of professional teacher education.

As part of my construction of the origins of Public Law 94-142 and the collision course on which the law and educational budgets are currently set, I must predict an inevitable backlash against Public Law 94-142 among school board members, state legislators, conservative educational administrators, and some segments of the teacher unions. This reaction is already present to some extent. Some of the reasons are economic, some are respectably dressed in professional arguments, some are only thinly veiled prejudices against handicapped persons, and some are based on honest fears, soundly articulated.

In any event, Public Law 94-142 will bring about profound changes in the educational service delivery system and in professional teacher education. Many of these changes will be subtle and untraceable to the law; some will be immediately evident; and others will be delayed effects. The immediate and obvious effects tend to be budgetary or economic: they arise from the staffing and individualized approaches to the implementation of Public Law 94-142. Others are less obvious and more subtle, such as the eventual reshaping of teacher education programs.

Teacher Education

It is important to keep in mind the current status and predictable future of teacher education in general before embarking further on a discussion of the challenge of Public Law 94-142 to teacher education, and before making predictions and suggestions with regard to changing teacher education. The future of teacher education, given no change in its current course, is rather dim. If we continue on our current course, the following observations and predictions may become reality. These points are evidence of the need for a re-energizing force, which Public Law 94-142 may provide:

1. General enrollment in colleges and universities will decline over the next three to five years.

2. The decrease in the demand for teachers will continue.

3. Current economic strictures will continue.

4. Because teacher education is a labor-intensive industry, the cost of teacher education will continue to increase.

5. Public support for teacher education will not improve.

6. The quality of teacher education will continue to decline.

7. Faculty resources will remain static or decline.

8. Educational research and developmental activities will languish.

9. The dormant teacher pool will become more active.

10. Community colleges and technical institutes will increase their teacher education program development activities in competition with the four-year senior institutions.

11. Competition from local, regional, state, and national educational agencies and organizations for the inservice education market will increase.

12. The influence of teacher education programs on their own campuses will continue to diminish.

13. The number of teacher education programs in any given state will decrease.

14. The influence of accrediting agencies will decrease.

15. There will be a general decline of program quality in the public schools.

16. The locus of control of teacher education programs will shift toward the public schools and teacher organizations.

The preceding observations and predictions are based on the assumption that the current situation will not change. Perhaps it is timely and fortunate that Public Law 94-142 has arrived to help "jar" this situation.

Finally, Public Law 94-142 has clear implications for the administrative, fiscal, and research policies and procedures in institutions of higher education generally.[2]

Competency Domains

Let me now turn to the explication of competency domains and clusters in the Challenge paper. Although some discussion may reveal that the ten areas could be collapsed into seven or expanded to 15, they provide a very adequate coverage of the most salient features of what effective teachers should know and be able to do.

Certainly a general knowledge of curriculum, the ability to teach basic skills, the ability to manage children and classrooms generally, the ability to develop and maintain professional interactions, the ability to foster student relationships, the ability to introduce and articulate the special needs of exceptional children, the ability to understand the skills and services of other professionals and to communicate with them effectively, the ability to engage in individualized teaching behaviors, and the ability to hold and to model professional values are the central items of any analysis of the "compleat" teacher. Without challenging those areas, I want to underscore four as most significant for any assessment, renewal, or overhaul of teacher education.

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[2] A paper on this topic was developed for the November 1978 meeting of "The Deans' Network" which is based at Northwestern University.

1. It has always been perplexing to me that although most teachers know "what" they are doing when they are in the act of teaching, they are not sure "why." Somehow, professional education and the education and training programs mounted to prepare teachers have not sufficiently fostered the spirit of inquiry and the internalization of professional values which are found in the sister professions of law, medicine, and engineering.

2. Education appears to be more susceptible to dabblers than the other professions. Among higher education faculties, there is a more marked ambiguity between psychology and the other behavioral sciences and the practitioner science of education. Biologists seldom attempt to behave like physicians; physicians regularly avoid behaving as if they were biologists. However, professional educators often masquerade as psychologists or economists, and psychologists and other behaviorists attempt to perform as professional educators. The situation might be clarified by a clearer delineation of the basic sciences in the social-science realm, and a clearer delineation of those occasions when "professional transvestism" is acceptable.

3. I have written before on the subject of special education as a renewal system that, eventually, may have a salutary effect on all of education (Stedman, 1969). This observation is proving more true as time goes on. Special education lies in easier communication with other disciplines, is made up of more caring professionals, and is closer to its basic and applied research resources than any other sub-specialty in the discipline of education. Its position will allow special education, now armed with Public Law 94-142, to permeate and infiltrate the educational service system and the professional training programs more effectively. The question is, will we be able to make it work?

4. Finally, one area does not seem to be well incorporated into any of the ten clusters: research utilization. I believe that we can develop meaningful educational and training components to provide the

kind of knowledge and understanding to make professional educators better users of educational research and more discriminating about what they select for their educational practices.

Teacher Education Programs

The matrix approach used in the Challenge paper is wise and intelligent; I have no quarrel with devising an improved model for teacher education. However, I have some increasing nervousness with the competency-based and performance-based models. We still lack adequate research to relate certain teacher behaviors to certain teaching outcomes, and there is too little evidence that certain child behaviors are directly traceable to certain teacher behaviors or styles. In most instances, there appears to be an administrative approach to the development of competency-based models; that is, competencies are listed and courses are identified which "lead to" the competencies desired. This idea is a sham. Further, there is evidence that competency-based programs are far more expensive than had been predicted and that the demonstrable benefits of the approach, as compared to other models, simply are not documented (Change 1978; Competency Forum, 1979; NIE Reports, 1977).

Be that as it may, we need to expand and make more meaningful the experimental components of the teacher education and teacher training programs. Thus far, the internship, practice teaching, or twelve-week module in the public schools has been poorly developed, poorly supervised, and poorly evaluated, and has led to high turnover among better students.

I would like to recommend strongly that the entry degree for professional education be the M.A., not because a teacher automatically becomes more effective with an M.A. I advocate this requirement because with graduate professional training one is more mature and has a broader base of general education, as well as experience and competence with which to start working in educational settings with young children. Also, any new models for teacher education should be designed from the outset to foster and provide inservice and continuing education in addition to preservice education.

It is clear to me that we must move from our current emphasis on undergraduate to graduate level preparation. We must move our current emphasis from preservice, on-campus teacher education activities to inservice, off-campus programs. We must do so without dropping the standards for admissions to programs and without diminishing the quality of the teacher education provided. In addition, we must consider procedures to share governance with other appropriate organizations and initiate strict quality-control processes. If we do not, somebody else will.

We must make our current teacher education programs more diversified so we can produce graduates for a more diversified market. There are more jobs in nontraditional educational markets than in the public schools. These markets include the human services system, correctional systems, the communications technology industry, and the continually expanding corporate and international market.

We must implement a continuous, rigorous self-evaluation of our teacher education programs and make hard decisions about whether they are of sufficient quality or sufficient productivity to be continued. This evaluation may be the only way that resources can be made available for new program development.

We must reduce the enrollment in unneeded programs and move to a greater emphasis on science and technology. We must emphasize within teacher education the high-need areas of special education, reading education, remedial education, community schools programs, pre-school and infant education, and programs for adults.

We must develop non-teaching education/human development baccalaureate programs. Education degree programs can be respectable "liberal arts programs" that prepare a young person to be a responsible citizen. Such undergraduate human development degrees might make excellent pre-professional, undergraduate degree programs for eventual entry to graduate, professional teacher education programs.

We need to modify our current fiscal policies and resource allocation procedures to support field-based activities. We need, for instance, to organize a statewide network of inservice and continuing education activities in partnership with the elementary and secondary schools.

Quality Assurance

In order to establish an effective system of teacher education or to install any new model for professional teacher education, effective quality-assurance programs must be developed. They will assure emphases on the improvement of the quality of students who enter professional teacher education programs, the use of the teacher education program as the evaluation mechanism for those who stay in teacher education programs, conditional or temporary certification or licensing prior to some more permanent licensure, and provision of a regular back-up or educational support system that will provide inservice education for beginning and continuing professional educators.

A program that includes these features must be installed at the state level and throughout the nation in order to achieve a higher level of quality and effective performance of teacher education programs. The framework established by Public Law 94-142 and its influence on the budgets and practices of state educational agencies may encourage the development of such quality-assurance programs for teacher education generally.

Figure 1 illustrates one version of such a quality-assurance program which is being developed in the state of North Carolina. The model proposes a three-point evaluation system by which candidates are examined at entry to the professional training program, prior to entry to the profession, and on a continuing basis at three to five year intervals thereafter. An educational support system is available from the time of completion of formal education and training to help teachers remedy weaknesses and capitalize on strengths, and to provide access to formal graduate education for career development.

New Models

Finally, professional teacher education models must be developed and evaluated which can incorporate the domains and clusters suggested in the Challenge paper. Figure 2 presents a proposed, professional teacher education model currently under discussion in North Carolina; some elements of the model are being implemented now in some of the constituent institutions of The University of North Carolina system.

This teacher education model emphasizes the graduate level as the locus of the professional program and proposes a two-year M. A. program. It also suggests that the professional program be preceded by an undergraduate, upper division, pre-professional program which might be a major in education or child development as suggested previously.

The model thus proposes a four-year program prior to conditional certification and the receipt of a master's degree in education. It

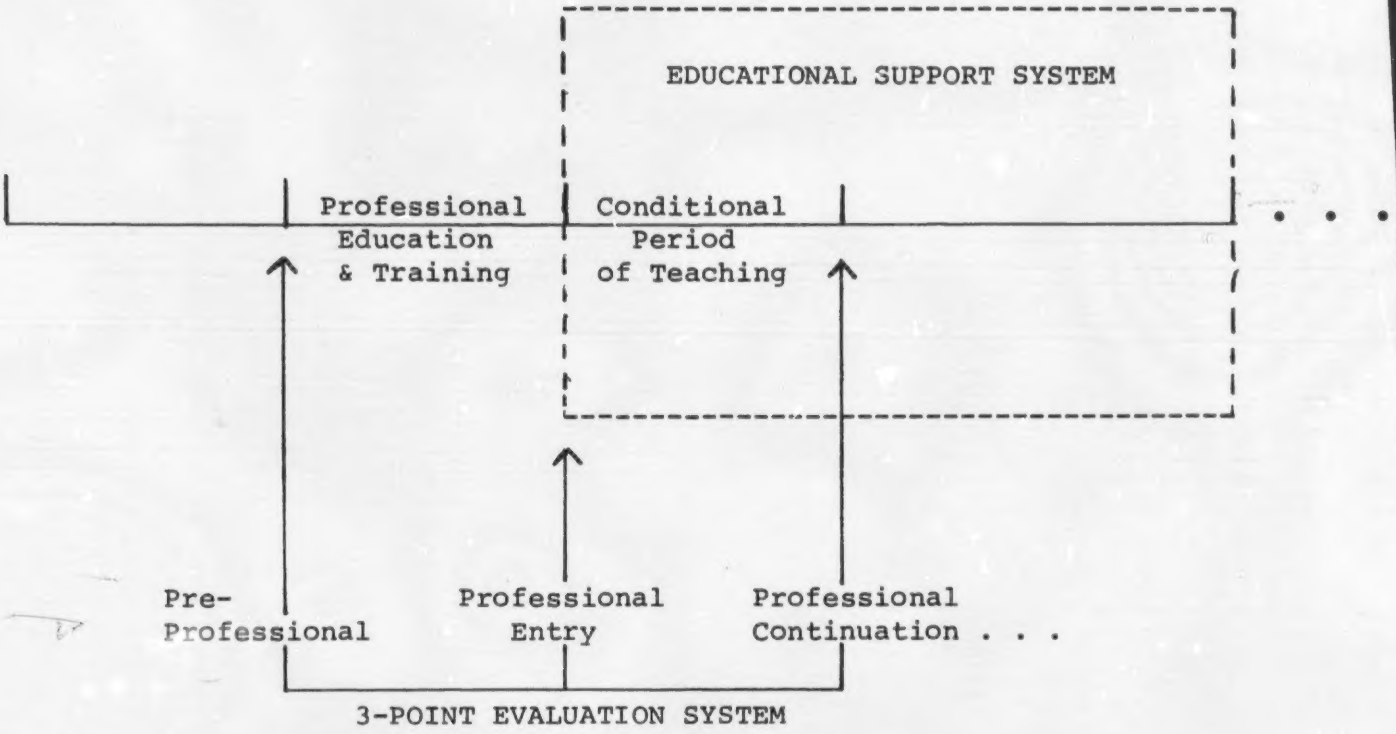
EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT SYSTEM
Professional Education & Training
Conditional Period of Teaching
Pre-Professional
Professional Entry
Professional Continuation . . .
3-POINT EVALUATION SYSTEM

Fig. 1. Proposed teacher education improvement program. Source: Quality assurance program developed in The University of North Carolina System. (D. J. Stedman, 1978)

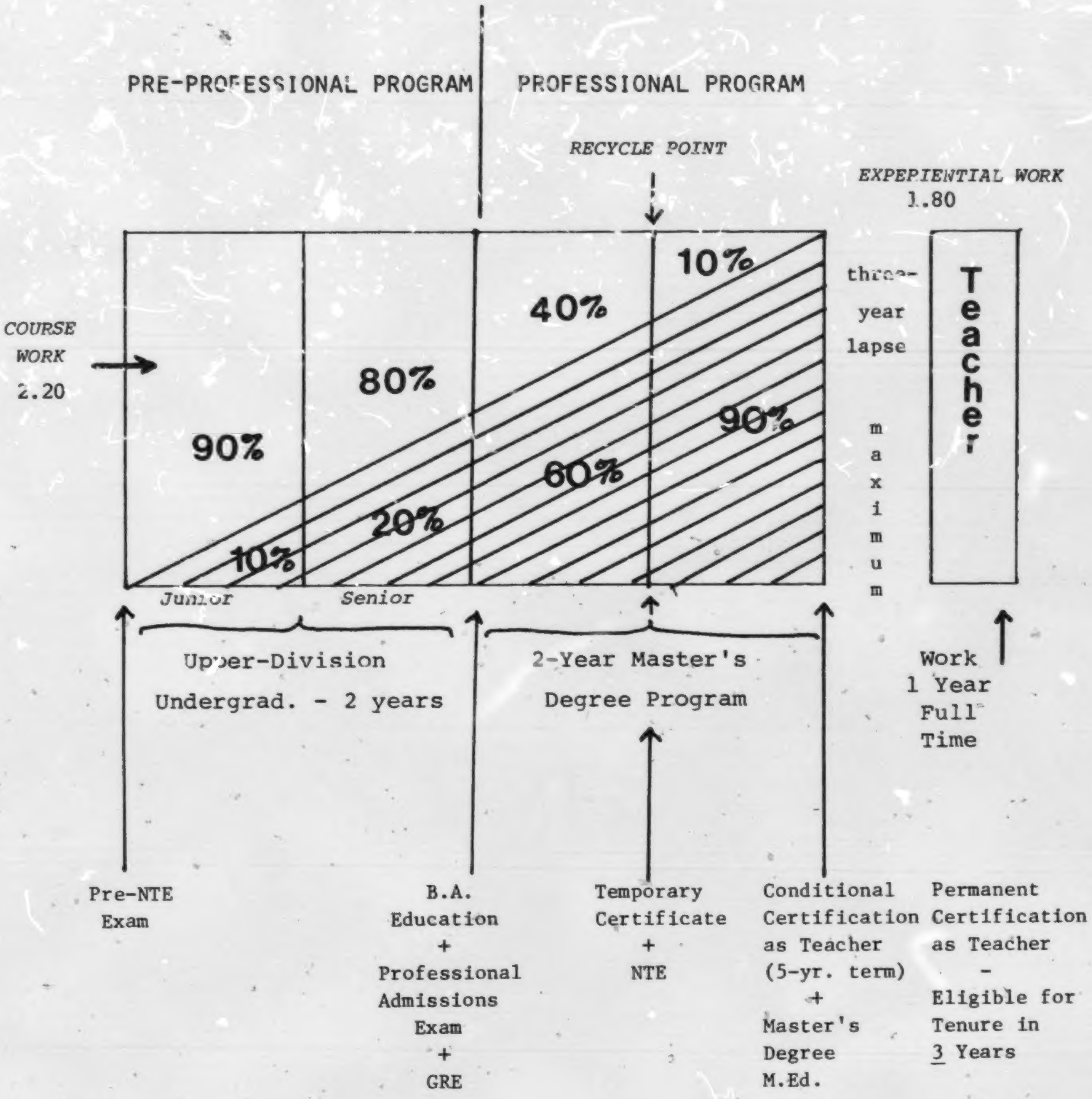
PRE-PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM
PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM
RECYCLE POINT
EXPERIENTIAL WORK
1.80
COURSE
WORK
2.20
90%
10%
80%
20%
40%
60%
10%
90%
three-
year
lapse
maximum
Teacher
Junior
Senior
Upper-Division
Undergrad. - 2 years
2-Year Master's
Degree Program
Work
1 Year
Full
Time
Pre-NTE
Exam
B.A.
Education
+
Professional
Admissions
Exam
+
GRE
Temporary
Certificate
+
NTE
Conditional
Certification
as Teacher
(5-yr. term)
+
Master's
Degree
M.Ed.
Permanent
Certification
as Teacher
-
Eligible for
Tenure in
3 Years

Fig. 2. North Carolina Professional Teacher Education Model. (D. J. Stedman, 1978)

indicates checkpoints along the way at which admissions procedures might be required and conditional and permanent licensure might occur. The shaded area of the figure indicates experiential activities -- training experienced by the trainee while he or she is in the public schools or some other educational setting. The proposal is that three-quarters of the two-year M. A. program take place in the educational setting as a full-time teacher while 25 percent of the program would be taken "in residence" at a teacher center or in a teacher education program on a college or university campus.

Certainly, more discussions and field trials must take place with this or any similar teacher education model. However, this model provides some administrative characteristics that can be used to augment the content discussion found in the Challenge paper.

Summary

Regardless of one's special biases or convictions, it is clear that Public Law 94-142 not only challenges but, also "crowds" the current status of teacher education and, more broadly, the educational practices currently prevailing in the public school systems. The impact of Public Law 94-142 on the heart of teacher education remains to be seen. One thing is certain: The current programs of teacher education as we now know them must undergo significant change over the next five years, whether Public Law 94-142 provides the challenge or the vehicle. My prediction is that the law will be given the blame for whatever negative change occurs and will receive little credit for whatever positive change results.

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EXPANDING THE VALUES OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142 TO NON-HANDICAPPED CHILDREN: A RESPONSE FROM A PARENT/ADVOCATE

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It may well turn out that Public Law 94-142, primarily intended to improve the education of the nation's handicapped children, will, in fact, be the impetus for the comprehensive reform of public education in a manner never anticipated by its authors and advocates. There are obvious implications for individualized planning and teaching: an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) for every child that is implemented with individualized teaching. However, implications that are nearly as important also emerge from a new definition of "equal educational opportunity": the emphasis on meaningful parental participation and overall accountability.

Crucial to Public Law 94-142 and to the Federal court decisions that preceded its enactment is the idea that "equal educational opportunity" for some children may mean more or, at least, different services from the usual curriculum. Such an interpretation has significance not just for handicapped children but, also, for gifted and talented children, for children from cultural or linguistic minorities, for children from very poor families, and for children of migrant workers. (Today, the description "migrant" covers not only the children of poor farm workers but, also, those of the migrant engineers and other technical professionals who stay only two or three years in one place. While economic advantages make the lives of the latter group of children easier, their education may often suffer from continuing disruptions.) The ideal would be an IEP for every child to accompany him or her on any move, whether across town to another neighborhood school or across the country to a school in another state.

In looking at the history of the concept "equal educational opportunity," teachers need to understand its implications beyond the "right to go to school" and the rejection of the "separate but equal" doctrine by the Federal courts. Teachers need to learn that the old, sometimes subtle, forms of discrimination are no longer acceptable: for example, dismissing handicapped children an hour earlier than the other children "for the sake of safety as they board the special buses"; sending handicapped children home at midday one day a week so that their teachers can have extra preparation and conference time; or denying handicapped children special transportation which, often, is tantamount to denying them access to school.

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The interpretation of "equal educational opportunity" incorporated in the new laws for handicapped children raises fundamental issues of change for public education. It is fitting that this change should be spearheaded by those persons and institutions responsible for training teachers.

Emphasis on the needs of a particular child and a plan for meeting that child's educational needs places accountability precisely where it belongs: at the level of services provided to the individual child. Furthermore, the stress on individualization makes parental participation and monitoring easier and more significant. For example, it is more important for parents to help to develop goals and to select services for their children than to make global decisions for or against open classrooms, new math, or phonics. As citizens, they also may want to participate in decisions on the latter issues but may reasonably delegate them to other persons.

Clarification of the IEP

The IEP -- individualized planning and programming -- constitutes the heart of Public Law 94-142. Unfortunately, the concept of the IEP has been misunderstood by many educators who lack direct experience with its application. In the following paragraphs, I will try to clarify some of these misconceptions.

A major objection has been raised that the IEP is a reversion to the "medical model" with too much emphasis on "diagnostics" and too little use of our current knowledge about child development. Such an interpretation appears to result from a partial view of the total process, from looking at the first step out of context.

The diagnostic part of the IEP is intended to be a first step in the total process of appropriate, individualized education. Seen as a beginning, rather than as an end in itself, the assessment (or diagnostic) phase appears in proper perspective. The IEP begins with necessary assessments which can help the parents and teacher to clarify a child's strengths and realistically work on the child's needs through specific educational objectives.

Such a misunderstanding reflects a justifiable concern. Historically, we are so tied to the medical model (diagnosis and cure, client as patient, doctor as authority) and so aware of the problems it has caused for handicapped children and their families that it is natural for concerned educators to look hard at any programmatic change that might tend to regenerate those old problems.

Along with educators, parents of handicapped children will not tolerate such an emphasis. Until the development of Public Law 94-142 and state special education laws (e.g., Massachusetts' Chapter 766), too many families followed the same painful, disillusioning route: a long, expensive search for an accurate diagnosis -- for a label that would hold all the answers -- only to find that the label (e.g., autism, cerebral palsy, mental retardation) offered very little real help for the child or the family. As a matter of fact, often the search itself constituted an unfortunate waste of time, valuable time that could have been used to begin to stimulate and train the infant or child. (In most instances, the worst thing that can happen to a handicapped child is nothing.)

Another tragic result of total reliance on medical authority was institutionalization of so many infants and young children. It was, and sometimes still is, very difficult for a new mother to resist the well-intentioned, paternalistic advice of the doctor, "It will be better for you and your other children if you give up this mongoloid baby."[2]

But the planning process outlined in Public Law 94-142 is designed precisely to overcome these problems. Diagnostic assessments are intended as tools for planning, not goals in themselves. Furthermore, the regulations move toward eliminating the IQ test as a major device for predicting a child's abilities. Thus, the regulations (and practices in many states) actually promote the use of the body of knowledge collected by child development specialists. Observation of the child -- by classroom teachers and parents as well as specialists -- also becomes extremely important.

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[2] A doctor who uses the more accurate term, Downs syndrome, is less likely to give such advice.

A second complaint is being voiced: a fear of fragmentation or fractionalization of the child's various needs. The concept of a team, including many professionals and the parent as a peer, can eliminate the danger of fragmentation. Handicapped children need a full range of experts who meet to share their expertise to form an accurate assessment of a particular child. (In order to avoid fragmentation, even with a team approach, it is essential for team members to meet regularly to share their insights about the child.)

Inclusion of the parents as legitimate team members must never be minimized as a powerful force for integrating the different aspects of the handicapped child's life. That factor alone mitigates against the fractionation and fragmentation that some educators fear; the parent (in most cases, obviously) is the one, continuous, stable element in the handicapped child's life.

Rather than focusing on separate elements, the IEP process, with its reliance on a team approach, should bring together the pieces of the puzzle to form a complete picture of the child. Properly implemented, this process should succeed where medicine, with its heavy emphasis on specialization, has usually failed to deal with the "whole child," handicapped or not.

I am reminded of a friend's ten-year-old son who suddenly said he needed glasses. The ophthalmologist checked and rechecked but could find nothing wrong with the boy's vision. Concerned with only eyeballs, the doctor never realized that the boy only wanted to be like his friends. The proper prescription may have been spectacles made of clear glass. A team approach is designed precisely to prevent that kind of fragmented view of children.

Finally, legitimate fears have also been expressed that the IEP could be used to promote racism and other stereotyping. It seems to me that the IEP holds much less of such a threat than almost any other tool and model familiar to us in the public schools -- tracking, standardized achievement tests, and use of the IQ as predictor, for example. On the contrary, when properly implemented, the IEP with its emphasis on the needs of an individual, particular child has the potential for becoming a powerful force against stereotyping.

"Properly implemented" implies, of course, that the participants are properly trained. The prescription for the reformation of teacher preparation, as presented in the Challenge paper, offers an exciting possibility. The emphasis on clusters of capabilities parallels recent movements toward competency-based teacher certification, for instance. Emphasis on capabilities constitutes a sound training base. Subjects taught, content, and even teaching techniques can change rapidly but a teacher can cope with those changes if he or she has developed a well-planned set of capabilities, such as those outlined here.

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to my responses to specific sections of the Challenge paper. Under "Clusters of Capabilities," I am omitting "Curriculum" and "Pupil and Class Management" because I support them fully and have nothing further to add.

Response to the Challenge Paper

It is good that the opening remarks of the Challenge paper stress the present inadequacy of teacher preparation rather than pointing to a great deal of incompetency laid bare by implementation of Public Law 94-142. The new mandate has shown that many of the old methods and content of teacher training are inadequate and, further, that continuing education of teachers in service has been woefully neglected.

As a parent and an advocate, I must come to the defense of a large number of superb teachers whose earlier training in no way prepared them for the new task of teaching the handicapped. Many have found that they possessed skills and personal resources which they never knew were there; when confronted with a challenge, they were able to exercise their imagination and rise to the occasion, often very effectively. (Such resourcefulness and enthusiasm account for my autistic daughter's successful program in public junior high school. See Hoyt, 1978.) These observations do not imply, however, that the job would not be easier and better if teachers had more thorough, formal preparation.

Teacher training institutions are beginning to experiment with new ways of meeting the challenge. Two examples with which I am familiar include a university in Boston which has developed an M.A.-level degree that combines special education and rehabilitation. Although such a combination may sound obvious and simple, the old rivalries between the two departments impeded a joint effort. Nevertheless, the program is working. Another innovation is an undergraduate program that combines special education with human services.

Because Section 504 appears as part of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-516) and specifically refers to vocational education, it is easy to overlook the fact that it also refers to education in general. Indeed, the regulations for Public Law 94-142 were carefully written to mesh well with the regulations of Section 504, which had been written earlier.

The two Federal statutes complement each other: Section 504 prohibits discrimination against handicapped persons in many areas of life, including education, and its regulations emphasize placement in the least restrictive environment. It further mandates individualized planning and implementation of the handicapped child's education. Thus, the two laws work together to force society to accept handicapped people in the mainstream and, at the same time, they force the public schools to do an optimal job in preparing handicapped children to live as much as possible within that mainstream. While not stated explicitly, it is clearly implied that the public schools bear the major burden in preparing society (i.e., non-handicapped persons) to learn to accept handicapped people in the mainstream. The challenge to teachers and teacher educators becomes more clear.

Certainly it is true that in general, teachers have not received the kind of preparation they need to deal with many of the handicapping conditions which some children in their classrooms will present. On the other hand, many teachers, often those in small school systems, in fact have been teaching classes of children with a wide range of learning abilities and styles. Often, teachers simply have made adaptations without ever thinking about labels such as "handicapped," "retarded," or "learning disabled." How many children have been moved to the front row of the class in order to read the blackboard better?

There is a potential new danger lurking in special education: the temptation to tack a label on every child who needs some simple adaptation to enhance his or her learning ability. There is also a temptation for teachers to find a way to move every child whose behavior is in any way diverting out of the regular classroom. One obvious answer to both dangers is an IEP for every child, handicapped or not.

I hope that we can find a way to build into the grand plan a component that will facilitate inservice training and retraining for teachers already in the field. With declining school enrollments in most of the country, the retraining of teachers and administrators is at least as important as changes in the preparatory training of teachers. Much of the responsibility for such programs will rest upon parents and other taxpayers, of course. Organizations of citizens concerned with quality education must persuade school boards to set aside the necessary resources. In Massachusetts, we have not yet found effective ways to motivate and reward those teachers and administrators who need retraining in order to implement the new special education mandates.

The inadequacy of teaching skills alluded to in the introduction to the Challenge paper applies to some other groups of children as well as to handicapped children. For example, when the city of Boston was forced to implement the desegregation order of the Federal court, most teachers were unprepared to teach effectively the black "street kids" whom many of them faced for the first time. Sometimes, in fact, they interpreted experiential differences as handicapping conditions and referred these children for evaluations under special education. The widespread lack of knowledge and competence for teaching children from this ethnic minority as well as other children with dramatic differences may, in fact, have been one of the factors that ultimately required the intervention of the Federal court in this and other cities in the North. It is to be hoped that Public Law 94-142 will present an opportunity to reform the education of teachers (and therefore to improve the overall quality of public education) in such a basic way that these other groups of neglected children will also benefit.

A common body of practice as a basis for "professional culture." As the concept paper indicates, many factors contribute to the development of a professional culture. I would like to add one additional factor: the selection of candidates. During the post-World War II baby boom, the need for teachers was so pressing that there was little room for the luxury of selection based on tight criteria. Now that the population of school-aged children is declining and a precipitous drop in the need for new teachers is occurring, it should be possible to become much more selective in the choice of students who are accepted for teacher training. Selection, even exclusivity, constitutes an essential part of the "professional culture of doctors and lawyers, not only for public perception but also for the professional person's self-image. As such criteria are developed, thought should be given to those qualities required to fulfill the mandates of Public Law 94-142. Not the least of these is a tolerance for, even a treasuring of, a wide range of differences among children (and people in general).

I heartily agree with the statement that the development and implementation of the individualized education plan is of far greater import than following certain procedures and using a few learned techniques.

Furthermore, "individualized teaching" and "optimal individual development" are very different concepts from the emphasis on "individual differences," which was the slogan of the education courses I took in college 25 years ago. The emphasis on "individual differences" is basically a negative notion, and it is no wonder it disappeared for good the first day of student teaching.

Part of the importance of the IEP lies in the way in which it changes the meaning and uses of diagnosis, evaluation, and assessment. Instead of being an end in itself, or simply a way of finding the right label, diagnosis becomes merely the first in a series of steps designed to maximize the benefits of the child's education. The series of steps culminates in implementation of an IEP and, hence, individualized teaching (not to be confused with one-on-one teaching). If properly done, the entire process of individualized education forces teachers to deal with each child as one whole, separate, individual person of value.

Clusters of Capabilities

I would add one more group to the ten clusters of capabilities, namely, Teacher-Parent-Student Relationships.[3] This cluster would include respect for the role of the family in the nurture and education of children, both handicapped and others. The recommendation is a direct outgrowth of experience with implementation of Public Law 94-142 and Chapter 766 (the Massachusetts state law that goes back to 1974). It may be argued that this cluster should be included under the section called "Interactions," but experience with special education mandates convinces me that it needs to be a separate, distinct cluster. Teachers need to learn some of the history of disenfranchised groups -- handicapped, black, Hispanic, migrant, for instance -- and the effects that disenfranchisement has had on families. Especially, teachers need to know how those effects in turn influence the family's attitude toward schools, teachers, and other institutions and professionals.

Furthermore, teachers need to learn the distinctions in experience among the various groups. For example, they need to know that, historically, parents of handicapped children have turned first toward the so-called "medical model" and almost invariably ended with frustration.

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[3] This cluster was added to the final version of the Challenge paper presented here.

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For many complicated reasons, families turn to medical authorities for kinds of assistance that medical persons usually are not equipped to deliver. (They do not, however, regularly indicate that information to parents.) Rarely have parents of handicapped children, especially those with severe handicaps, even considered turning to the public schools for essential services. Almost invariably, a severe handicap -- whether deafness, blindness, autism, cerebral palsy -- is thought of first as a health or medical problem. Ideally, education should be integrated with treatment, and teachers need to learn the skills that will enable them to convince parents of the value of training.

Teachers also need to learn how to interpret the suspicions which are held not only by parents of handicapped children but, also, by other groups of disenfranchised parents when they first approach the school. Such parents are accustomed to frustration, and they often approach the school with very minimal expectations. Teachers must develop skills to cope with these negative feelings and they must understand the reality behind the feelings. With new laws and new services, we can hope that this kind of personal history of frustrations will become more rare, but teachers still will encounter it occasionally.

Teachers, both "regular" and "special" and at every grade level, must learn how to share their skills with parents so that learning can continue at home and not accidentally be sabotaged. Equally important, teachers need to learn to accept the fact that, except in unusual circumstances, no one knows a particular child better than the parents -- in most cases, especially the mother. Other people know much more about autism, language, or behavior than I, but no one knows my autistic daughter better than her father and I do, unless, perhaps, it is her younger brother. Teachers need to recognize that excellent teachers and specialists may come and go through a child's life but the family (again, with some exceptions) is a constant force.

Finally, in regard to handicapped children, teachers need to know as much as possible about the effects of the handicapped child on non-handicapped siblings. They need to know some of the subtle differences; not just that a child's reaction may depend on his or her personality type, but the differences that may occur when the handicapped child is older or younger than the non-handicapped sibling.

Teachers need to learn to accept parents as members of the team, not just in words but in reality. To promote that goal, I would make the following concrete recommendation:

All teachers should learn skills and sensitivity in dealing with parents and siblings of handicapped children and they should have an opportunity to practice such skills in their practica.

Other aspects of dealing with parents would come under the cluster called "Interactions," obviously.

2. Teaching Basic Skills. This section strikes me as excellent and carefully thought through. I especially commend the paragraphs on Life Maintenance Skills and Personal Development Skills. In the past, these skills rarely have received the attention they deserve, and both sets are especially important for handicapped children.

4. Interactions. I would add one more point to this section: Teachers need to learn that they are not expected to know everything and they should not expect other teachers to know everything. While this suggestion may sound simplistic, I am convinced that the major factor that interferes with effective collaboration and teamwork is the fear of showing one's ignorance. Again, teacher trainees need to experience real, successful collaboration and reliance on someone else's expertise during their practica.

5. Student-Student Relationships. This section is excellent. I especially support the emphasis on peer and cross-age teaching. Few efforts can do more to enhance a handicapped child's self-esteem than the opportunity to teach or help someone else. Furthermore, this device can be used sometimes to reinforce the skill the handicapped child needs to learn, as when a learning disabled child teaches another child to read or spell.

6. Exceptional Conditions. This is one of the few sections for which I disagree with the basic premise. Some handicaps, especially deafness and blindness, now occur in such small numbers among children that I believe it is a mistake to require all teachers to learn the skills required to teach all these children. It is more important that teachers know how to recognize exceptional conditions, including limited, unusual, or outstanding abilities, and that they know how to get the information should the need arise. At this point I would reemphasize my previous statement on the importance of teachers' accepting the fact that they will never at any time know all they need to know.

It should be remembered also that both teaching techniques and equipment are changing rapidly now for many of the handicapping conditions.

What a teacher learns today about deaf education may be totally outmoded five years from now when the teacher may, for the first and only time, encounter a deaf student in the classroom.

7. Referral. Again, teachers must accept their own limitations and those of others. Teachers must be honest with parents when the proper referral is not known or, perhaps, does not exist -- an unfortunate but frequent fact. Parents and their children suffer greatly from being bounced from one well-intentioned but ignorant person to another. New teachers, as part of their orientation, should learn what dependable case management resource exists in a particular community, whether it be a child advocacy agency (public or private), mental health agency, or whatever.

I believe that it is more important for teachers to learn the skills needed to locate resources in a particular community rather than to try learning all the possibilities. Teachers also need to understand how dynamic resources can be. For example, within a particular community at a particular time, Crippled Children's Services may be the most reliable resource; three years later, a change in leadership or funding may make the Easter Seal Society or United Cerebral Palsy a better resource.

8. Individualized Teaching. Probably nothing in Public Law 94-142 holds more promise for more children than does the emphasis on individualized planning and teaching. I cannot overemphasize the importance of the distinction between individualized teaching and one-on-one teaching. This distinction is universally misunderstood among both teachers and parents. Not only must teachers themselves understand the distinction, but they also must be prepared to explain the distinction and the meaning of individualized teaching to others, including both their colleagues and parents.

It is often assumed that individualized teaching means one teacher working with one student. Such one-on-one teaching, or tutoring, is just one form of individualized teaching. A single teacher can teach as many as a dozen students simultaneously although no two students may be doing the same thing at the same time because each student is following his or her individualized program.

I would add to the recommendations: All teachers must be skillful in developing behavioral objectives and in assessing whether a child is meeting the objectives.

9. Professional Values. I agree that it is important for teachers to understand school law and to be knowledgeable about the interactions of

law and education, but in addition, they need to understand the reasons for the paperwork which they often will find burdensome. They need to understand that due process and guarantees of rights (in whatever area of life) require written records, correspondence, reports, and other forms of documentation. I like to point out the fact that in the old days (four or five years ago!), when a school principal could with impunity say to a mother of a handicapped child, "I am sorry, but we have nothing for your child," no paper work was required.

Conclusions: Assessment and Planning for Revisions in Teacher Preparation and Next Steps

Certainly it is time to consider seriously whether five years should be the minimum period for professional preparation for teaching. Probably a full year, supervised practicum should be required. The Challenge paper recommends for teacher education such experience as professional collaboration, parent conferences, and new teaching techniques. All these skills can be learned effectively only if they are included in the practicum. Again, the end of the teacher shortage, along with the educational reforms outlined in Public Law 94-142, would seem to make change timely and acceptable. An added year of training could even help to compensate colleges and universities for the loss of students.

Implementation of Public Law 94-142 can succeed only if handicapped children truly receive an education appropriate to their needs. Those children who are mainstreamed will succeed only to the extent that they are mainstreamed into a basically sound public school system. For these successes to occur, there must be changes in both the professional preparation of teachers and the training of teachers now on the job. Finally, these changes apply not only to teachers but, also, to administrators, especially school principals.

I have long felt that a good IEP, properly implemented, would benefit my non-handicapped son as much as it does my handicapped daughter. Parents, educators, and others who value quality public education must insist that the system be changed so that all children can benefit from the quiet revolution now taking place in special education.

Reference

Hoyt, H. Mainstreaming Mary Ann. American Education, 1978, 14(9), 13-17.